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**THE COHESIVE RELATION OF VERBAL ELLIPSIS IN ENGLISH
AND ITS COUNTERPARTS IN PORTUGUESE**

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ABSTRACT

This paper deals with the cohesive relation of verbal ellipsis within Halliday's wider systemic model of linguistic description. The discussion on verbal ellipsis is based on "Cohesion in English" by M.A.K. Halliday and R. Hasan.

The paper first presents Halliday's concepts regarding language, including the nature of language, the functions of language, and the structure of language; and then discusses verbal ellipsis in detail. Also included in this paper is an attempt to identify similarities and points of divergence between certain cases of verbal ellipsis in English and Portuguese. By examining a restricted corpus of examples of verbal ellipsis and their counterparts in Brazilian Portuguese, it becomes evident that there are, in fact, similarities and differences between the two languages with regard to this topic. These must be taken into consideration in the teaching of verbal ellipsis in English to Brazilian students.

1 INTRODUCTION

The present study deals with a description of the cohesive relation of verbal ellipsis within Halliday's systemic framework of linguistic description. Also included is an attempt to identify similarities and points of divergence between a restricted number of ellipted verbal groups in English and their counterparts in Brazilian Portuguese.

Several years of experience in teaching ESL (English as Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign Language) have made it plain that the acquisition of certain patterns of verbal ellipsis in English presents a serious learning problem to speakers of Portuguese. However, it has also been observed that within verbal ellipsis there are certain cases where correct understanding and expression are acquired with relative ease. Brazilian students have, for example, little difficulty in learning *Yes, I can* in question-answer sequences such as

Can you swim?
Yes, I can.

but they do have difficulty with *Yes, I do* in

Do you want a book?
Yes, I do.

The latter question is often erroneously answered with **Yes, I want*.

Both, *Yes, I can* and **Yes, I want* reflect the Portuguese structures *Sim, posso* and *Sim, quero*. This shows that students

tend to transfer structures of their own language to the second language. This phenomenon of transfer has been described by Lado in the following way:

... individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture - both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives.¹

or, as Schachter argues:

The learner apparently constructs hypotheses about the target language based on the knowledge he already has about his own language. If the constructions are similar in the learner's mind, he will transfer his native language strategy to the target language.²

The description chosen as the basis for this study is that of Halliday and Hasan, as contained in their recent book "Cohesion in English" which represents the most comprehensive analysis of this linguistic phenomenon in English. These authors have jointly investigated the means by which language becomes text, i.e. the resources or options that exist within the English language for text construction. "The basic unit of language in use", says Halliday, "is not a word or a sentence but a 'text'; and the textual component in language is the set of options by means of which a speaker or writer is enabled to create texts - to use language in a way that is relevant to the context."³ According to Halliday and Hasan, one of these resources is that of ellipsis which happens when "something which is present in the selection of the underlying ('systemic') options is omitted in the structure".⁴

The present study is not intended to be a contrastive analysis, since this would involve not only a complete description of ellipsis within the verbal group in Portuguese, but would also involve a description of it within the same linguistic theory. It was felt beyond the scope of this paper to attempt describing verbal ellipsis in Portuguese within Halliday and Hasan's framework. However, even though no linguistic description of verbal ellipsis in Portuguese has been found in the existing literature, an attempt will be made to investigate what the Portuguese counterparts of some cases of verbal ellipsis in English are in order to establish similarities and differences in the two languages.

Thus the aims of this research are, firstly, to attempt a comprehensive description of the way in which verbal ellipsis operates in English; secondly, to list occurrences of verbal ellipsis in English and thirdly, to identify similarities and points of divergence with regard to this topic.

The methodology is essentially one of bibliographical research on verbal ellipsis, limited to the active voice, within Halliday and Hasan's framework (chapters two and three). An attempt will then be made to provide suitable Brazilian Portuguese translations of sentences containing verbal ellipsis in English in order to identify similarities and differences between the two languages with regard to this topic (chapter four). After this practical study is completed, suggestions will be made for further research based on the evaluation of this study conducted here (chapter five).

NOTES

¹LADO, R. *Linguistics across cultures*. Ann Arbor, The University of Michigan Press, 1974. p.2.

²SCHACHTER, J. An error in error analysis. *Language Learning*, 24: 212, 1974. Quoted by ZOBEL, H. Developmental and Transfer Errors: Their Common Bases and (Possibly) Differential Effects on Subsequent Learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 14(4):469-79.

³HALLIDAY, M.A.K. Language Structure and Language Function. In: LYONS, J., ed. *New Horizons in Linguistics*. Harmondsworth, Penguin, 1977. p.160-1.

⁴HALLIDAY & HASAN, *Cohesion in English*. London, Longman, 1979. p.144.

2 VERBAL ELLIPSIS IN HALLIDAY'S MODEL OF LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION

Before giving a description of verbal ellipsis as a cohesive element, its place within Halliday's wider systemic model of linguistic description must be determined. Halliday follows the tradition established by de Saussure who, according to Allen, described language as "un système dont tous les termes sont solidaires".¹

2.1 NATURE OF LANGUAGE

What is the system of language in Halliday's terms? He answers this question with: "The linguistic system is to be seen as a semantic potential. It is a range of possible meanings; together with the means whereby these meanings are realized, or expressed".² Systemic linguistics (of which Halliday is a representative) together with "Prague School theory, glossematics, system-structure theory, tagmemics, stratification theory and the later versions of transformation theory"³ have all recognized the tri-stratal organization of the adult language system. According to Halliday and Hasan "language can be explained as a multiple coding system comprising three levels of coding, or 'strata': the semantic (meanings), the lexicogrammatical (forms) and the phonological and orthographic (expressions)".⁴

Table 1: THE TRI-STRATAL ORGANIZATION OF LANGUAGE

meanings	(semantic system)
↓	
forms ('wording')	(lexicogrammatical system { grammar vocabulary })
↓	
expressions { 'sounding' writing	(phonological and orthographic systems)

This nomenclature and table have been adapted from HALLIDAY & HASAN, p.5.
Note: Arrows indicate coding sequence.

It is this tri-stratal characteristic that distinguishes the adult language system from animal communication which, says Halliday, is bi-stratal in nature, consisting exclusively of meaning and sounds, with nothing in between, i.e. the sounds are therefore a direct output of meaning. Lexicogrammar is "a system intermediate between the content and the expression, and it is the distinguishing characteristic of human, adult language".⁵ In the linguistic system, meanings are thus first realized (coded) as lexicogrammatical forms, and these are in turn then realized (recoded) as expressions; that is to say: in language 'wording' comes between meaning and 'sounding'; 'wording' being the level of grammar (i.e. structures) and vocabulary or lexical items (i.e. words).

2.2 FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE

The nature of language is closely related to its social communicative functions. In Halliday's analysis language is

multi-stratal in nature. Together with Malinowski, Bühler, Firth and the Prague School linguists, to name only a few, Halliday also claims that language is multi-functional. Three main functional components (also called macro-functions) have been described by Halliday⁶: a) the ideational, b) the interpersonal and c) the textual.

The ideational function relates to the expression of content. It is subdivided into two parts: the experiential and the logical. The experiential is concerned with the speaker's experience, the logical with his thoughts and knowledge. "Language", says Halliday, "serves for the expression of 'content': that is, of the speaker's experience of the real world, including the inner world of his own consciousness. We may call this the ideational function".⁷

The interpersonal function relates to the speaker's role in the communication process. To quote Halliday again:

Language serves to establish and maintain social relations: for the expression of social roles, which include the communication roles created by language itself - for example the roles of questioner and respondent, which we take on by asking or answering a question; and also for getting things done, by means of the interaction between one person and another.⁸

The textual function or textual component of the linguistic system refers to the set of resources that are intrinsic to language and that the speaker draws upon to create text.

Language has to provide for making links with itself and with features of the situation in which it is used. We may call this the *textual* function, since this is what enables

the speaker or writer to construct 'texts', or connected passages of discourse that is situationally relevant; and enables the listener or reader to distinguish a text from a random set of sentences.⁹

There are three parts within the textual component: a) intra-sentence structure (texture within the sentence), b) discourse structure (also called macro-structure) and c) cohesion, of which verbal ellipsis is an integral part.

In the adult linguistic system, the notion 'function of language' as the expression is employed above, is not equivalent with 'use of language'. In fact, there are two distinct concepts: a) function as 'use of language' and b) function as social semantic component in the linguistic system. It is the latter which is referred to when language is said to be multi-functional. In Halliday's words:

We could express this dual continuity another way by saying that, whereas for the very small child (....) the concept of *function of language* is synonymous with that of *use of language*, for the adult however the two are distinct; the former refers to what are now incorporated as components of the linguistic system, while the latter refers to the extra-linguistic factors determining how the resources of the linguistic system are brought into play.¹⁰

Table 2: RELATIONSHIP: FUNCTION - USE

early child language	function = use
adult language	function ≠ use
	function = social-semantic component

Thus language serves for a great number of social purposes (uses). However, each adult utterance, with the exception of a few, has to be plurifunctional, contrary to early child language where each utterance is unifunctional, and 'function of language' is synonymous with 'use of language'. These macro-functions

are the highly abstract linguistic reflexes of the multiplicity of social uses of language. There are innumerable social purposes for which adults use language; but these are not represented directly, one by one, as functional components in the internal organization of language, as are those of the child. (....) Instead, they are represented indirectly in the language system through 'macro-functions' of a very general kind — which are still recognizable, nevertheless, as being the underlying demands which we make on language and which it must serve in order to fulfil the more specific social purposes which we require of it.¹¹

Whatever the uses of language, a typical adult utterance has an ideational, interpersonal and textual component.

These three macro-functions (this tri-partite functional component) are reflected in the lexicogrammatical stratum. In Halliday's words: "The multiple function of language is reflected in linguistic structure; this is the basis for the recognition of the ideational (including logical), interpersonal and textual functions as suggested here".¹²

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF STRUCTURE

Before discussing where these three macro-functions are reflected in linguistic structure (structure of language), the concept 'structure' and other related terminology must be clarified. "Language is patterned activity",¹³ says Halliday ; that

is to say that at the levels of forms and expressions, as these two strata have been called above, there occur, graphically speaking, linear (or syntagmatic) patterns of various lengths which are referred to, respectively, as lexical/grammatical and phonological/orthographic structures. The category of *unit* has been assigned to these patterns of various lengths.

Halliday claims that English grammar has at least five units: "English grammar, as far it has been studied to date, seems to require five, though further, statistical, work on grammar might yield at least one more".¹⁴ These units, forming a hierarchy, can, according to their size, be arranged on a scale which is denominated *rank*. Starting from the highest to the lowest unit, there is the following rank scale in English grammar: sentence-clause-group-word-morpheme.

Table 3: RANK SCALE IN ENGLISH

name of hierarchy	unit	'consists-of relationship among units	'provides-the-con- stituents'-relation- ship among units
rank	{ sentence clause group word morpheme	↓	↑

Adapted from KRESS, p.58.

If one looks at these units in descending order, one may say that there exists a 'consists-of' relationship among them: i.e. each unit consists of one, or more than one, occurrence of the next unit below. Therefore each unit, with the exception of the unit morpheme, has structure, i.e. is made

up of elements, consisting of one, or more than one, unit of the rank next below. If one looks at these units in ascending order, each unit provides the constituents or elements of the next unit above. The grouping of constituents or elements in the units is always ordered. *Structures* are thus "arrangements of elements ordered in places; each structural place therefore represents the potentiality of occurrence of a unit from the rank next below".¹⁵

The clause *the boy next door has been playing his guitar all afternoon*, then, has a structure whose primary elements or immediate constituents are four groups which function as Subject (S), Predicator (P), Complement (C) and Adjunct (A) respectively. Three of them are nominal groups and the other is a verbal group.

<u>the boy next-door</u>	<u>has been playing</u>	<u>his guitar</u>	<u>all afternoon</u>
S	P	C	A
nominal group	verbal group	nominal group	nominal group

Elements of structure are realized as 'formal items', that is, grammatical or 'closed-system' items, and lexical or 'open-set' items. "A 'formal item' is any meaningful stretch of language, of any extent, like 'the' or 'chair' or 'in case' or 'I' ve thrown it away' or the '-s' in a plural like 'chairs'. The reason for calling this a 'formal item' instead of simply 'item' is that it is defined within linguistic form."¹⁶

These 'formal items' are assigned to *classes*. "Any formal item is more likely to represent certain elements of structure than to represent others, and on this basis it can be assigned to a class."¹⁷ The formal items that represent the element P in the structure of a clause constitute the class

denominated 'verbal group'; the formal items that represent the element 'V' in the structure of the verbal group (i.e. A-V (auxiliary verb-lexical verb), A-A-V, A-A-V etc., see page 29) constitute the class denominated 'lexical verbs'. "The class is the grouping of terms whose common feature is their shared potentiality of occurrence in a given structural place in the unit next above in the rank scale."¹⁸

2.4 FUNCTIONS REFLECTED IN STRUCTURE

The meaning of various linguistic concepts, i.e. structure, unit, etc., has been made explicit. (Some of these will later be required to explain the verbal group and thus verbal ellipsis in English). It can now be stated briefly where the functional components of the linguistic system, i.e. the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions, are reflected in grammatical structure, or to be more specific, in the structure of the clause. It is here, within the clause structure, that all three macro-functions are expressed simultaneously. "Any one clause is built up of a combination of structures deriving from these three functions ..."¹⁹

The ideational function, i.e. that concerned with the expression of content, is reflected in the grammar of *transitivity*, where the different types of processes (i.e. action, mental process, and relation), the different types of participants, and the different types of circumstances are encoded in lexicogrammatical structures. In other words, "transitivity is the representation in language of PROCESSES, the PARTICIPANTS therein, and the CIRCUMSTANTIAL features associated with them".²⁰ So, for example, the clause *the boy next-door was studying*

in his room has the grammatical structure S-P-A (subject-predicator-adjunct) or, in Halliday's functional analysis, actor-process-locative. These, in turn, stand for participant, process and circumstance respectively. It thus can be concluded that the participants are expressed by nominal groups, processes by verbal groups, and circumstances by adverbial groups.

Mood (including modality) is the grammar of the second function. As mentioned above, the interpersonal function provides for interaction between people by assigning them different roles in a speech act. So, if the speaker (writer) chooses imperative, he is assigning himself the role of controller, to the listener the role of controlled; if the speaker (writer) chooses declarative rather than interrogative, he is assuming the role of informer, the other the role of informed. The category of mood "is realized through the system of options exemplified by the 'sentence-types' declarative, interrogative and imperative and through the modality system exemplified by modals like *must*, *will*, *may* and so on, and by such adverbs as *possibly*, *perhaps*, and *certainly*".²¹ The three options (declarative, interrogative and imperative) "can be said to relate to the three principal communicative functions in language: telling someone something, asking someone something and asking someone to do something".²² The clause, at the interpersonal level, has a two-part structure made up of modal element and propositional element. While the former consists of the subject plus the finite element in the verbal group, the latter consists of the remainder, i.e. the remaining items of the verbal group plus the complements or adjunct, if present.

The third function, the textual function, is reflected in structure in what Halliday calls the grammar of *theme*, whose main options are referred to as thematization, information and identification. Their structures are respectively: theme-rheme, given-new and known/identified - unknown/identifier. By giving a clause thematic structure the speaker organizes the message into theme and rheme, i.e. the element assigned to first position within the theme-rheme structure (always within a clause) is called theme, the remaining elements, rheme. Information structure might be seen as a discourse feature, while thematization has to do with the arrangement of elements within a clause, although both information and thematization structures may co-occur. "The information systems, in other words, specify a structural unit and structure it in such a way as to relate it to the preceding discourse; whereas thematization takes a unit of sentence structure, the clause, and structures it in a way that is independent of what has gone before." ²³

Table 4: RELATIONSHIP: FUNCTION - STRUCTURE I

FUNCTION	STRUCTURE
ideational	transitivity
interpersonal	mood
textual	theme

Identification, the third of these options, "provides for a distribution of information into identified/identifier and so serves to give prominence to different parts of the message or

to ensure that the message links up with previous discourse".²⁴ Identification is provided by 'equative' clauses which contain three elements, the known (identified), previously dealt with, and unknown (identifier), and a relator. "The relator is the verb *be*, or rather is that one of the three verbs *be* that belongs to the class of transitive verbs, forming a sub-class together with *equal* and some others."²⁵

The meanings derived from the three macro-functions, i.e. from the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions, are thus realized in the structure of the clause; and this is achieved not in a segmental fashion, by one element of structure representing one function and another element of structure representing another function. On the contrary,

Grammatical structure may be regarded, in fact, as the means whereby the various components of meaning, deriving from the different functions of language, are integrated together. We can see that each component makes its contribution to the total structural complex. The different functions are, quite evidently, simultaneous and compatible.²⁶

Thus the different functions are mapped on to one another as seen below.

Table 5: RELATIONSHIP: FUNCTION - STRUCTURE II

FUNCTIONS	STRUCTURES		
	the boy nextdoor was studying in his room		
ideational function	actor	process	locative
interpersonal function	modal		propositional
textual function	theme	rheme	
	new		
	known/identified	unknown/identifier	
	subject	predicator	adjunct

Adapted from KRESS, p.24.

2.5 COHESION

2.5.1 Components of textual function

It must be noted however, that the textual function does not only consist of intra-sentence structure, which was discussed above, but also of macro-structure (discourse structure) and cohesion. Macro-structure may refer to structure found in varieties of styles, for example: narrative, conversation, the various literary forms, commercial correspondence; or may also refer to the structure of the paragraph. Discourse structure thus refers to a probable unit above the level of the sentence. It is structure, as the word indicates. Cohesion, the third of the text-forming resources, on the other hand, is a non-structural device within language by which text is created. Since verbal ellipsis belongs into the realm of cohesion, certain concepts must be made explicit which must be understood before verbal ellipsis can be discussed.

2.5.2 The concepts of text, texture and tie

The first of these concepts is *text*. According to Halliday and Hasan, native speakers of English can distinguish text from non-text with ease. "If a speaker of English hears or reads a passage of the language which is more than one sentence in length, he can normally decide without difficulty whether it forms a unified whole or is just a collection of unrelated sentences."²⁷ A text is thus any stretch of language that forms a unified whole. A text is thus not a set of loose sentences. It is not dependent on size. A text is not a unit of form within the lexicogrammatical stratum; it is not a unit

higher than the sentence on Halliday's rank scale. It must be considered a semantic unit, a unit of meaning.

Thus it is related to a clause or sentence not by size but by REALIZATION, the coding of one symbolic system in another. A text does not CONSIST of sentences; it is REALIZED BY, or encoded in, sentences. If we understand it in this way, we shall not expect to find the same kind of STRUCTURAL integration among the parts of a text as we find among the parts of a sentence or clause. The unity of a text is a unity of a different kind.²⁸

What makes a stretch of language into text? Halliday and Hasan claim that "a text has texture, and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text."²⁹ Any stretch of language that has the property called *texture* is a text. Texture is created through cohesive relations (called cohesive ties by Halliday and Hasan) in turn provided for by the presence of certain linguistic elements within the text. A *tie*, i.e. one instance of cohesion, consists of two elements or items: first, the presupposing or referring item, and secondly, the presupposed item or item which the former element refers to. Hence, whenever the presupposing element within a text is interpretable through another item within the same text, there is a tie. For example, the presupposing item *am* in *Yes, I am* cannot be interpreted in isolation. It could mean:

- a) Yes, I am one of your students.
- b) Yes, I am over thirty.
- c) Yes, I am going to study.
- d) Yes, I am late.

However, if *Yes, I am* refers back to *Are you going to study this afternoon?*, it can only mean *Yes, I am going to study this*

afternoon. This illustrates the role of one type of tie generating texture within a passage.

2.5.3 The concept of cohesion

Although no attempt has been made as yet to define cohesion, the term cohesion has been used within several explanations incorporated into our description thus far. The New Webster Dictionary of the English Language defines cohesion as deriving from the Latin word *cohaerere* (*co* - together + *haerere* - stick). It is the "act or state of cohering, uniting, or sticking together; logical connection; *physics*; the state in which, or the force by which, the particles of bodies of the same nature are kept in contact so as to form a continuous mass".³⁰ Halliday and Hasan see the linguistic phenomenon of cohesion as a process (act) and relation (state) by which elements of 'the same nature' cohere, i.e. are bound together to form ties, and thus texture, and text. In other words, cohesion is part of the textual component in language.

If it were true that all texts were composed of one sentence only, structure alone would suffice to explain cohesion between the parts, for "two or more items entering into a structure always cohere".³¹ However, since texts usually consist of more than one sentence, other linguistic features must be seen as providing for the making of structurally independent sentences into a 'unified whole', i.e. into text.

...so cohesion within a text - texture - depends on something other than structure. There are certain specifically text-forming relations which cannot be accounted for in terms of constituent structure; they are properties of the text as such, and not of

any structural unit such as clause or sentence. Our use of the term COHESION refers specifically to these non-structural text-forming relations.³²

These relations are semantic and as such are realized through the stratal arrangement of language. Since the lexicogrammatical stratum comprises grammar and lexis (i.e. vocabulary), cohesion is in part coded in grammar and in part coded in vocabulary. Thus we distinguish between lexical cohesion and grammatical cohesion, lexical ties and grammatical ties. These ties are, according to Halliday and Hasan, lexical cohesion, conjunction, reference, substitution and ellipsis. The first four of these will be considered only briefly; the latter will be dealt with in more detail, since it is here that verbal ellipsis is located.

2.5.3.1 Lexical cohesion

Lexical cohesion (this is the name given to the first of these ties) is, as the word suggests, lexical as opposed to grammatical. It is achieved by options from the lexis or vocabulary at the lexicogrammatical stratum. It is thus a formal relation. There are two distinct kinds of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is the form of lexical cohesion in which a lexical item, i.e. the reiterated item, refers back to a preceding lexical item. It may either be the same lexical item, a synonym or near-synonym, a superordinate or a general word. Collocation, the name given to the second type of lexical cohesion, refers to a tie, consisting of lexical items which tend to occur in the same lexical environment, i.e. tend to occur in collocation with one another. Examples of

these items are: synonyms or near-synonyms, superordinates, pairs of opposites (complementaries, antonyms, converses), pairs of words from the same ordered series and so on.

2.5.3.2 Conjunction

Conjunction, the second type of cohesive tie, differs significantly from the other four ties. While the latter are all 'phoric' in nature (either pointing back or forward, or both), conjunction is not. It is thus only indirectly cohesive. It is by their specific meanings that conjunctions "presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse".³³ Cohesion brought about by conjunction consists of a semantic connection with the preceding passage; in other words, it is the function of conjunction to link, intersententially, items which are unrelated structurally, and which occur in succession. Conjunction is neither grammatical cohesion nor lexical cohesion alone, but includes both, being predominantly grammatical.

2.5.3.3 Reference

The remaining three cohesive ties, namely reference, substitution and ellipsis, are grammatical cohesion, i.e. they involve closed systems. However, while *reference* is expressed by grammatical means, it is a relation at the semantic stratum, i.e., in reference, cohesion is created by the semantic identity or comparability of reference item and the presupposed item. In fact, a reference item can only be interpreted by making reference to something else. Therefore a reference item (reference items in English are personals, demonstratives and comparatives) is 'phoric' in nature. Halliday and Hasan distinguish

between exophoric or situational reference (where the reference item refers to an item in the context of situation) and endophoric or textual reference (where the reference item refers to an item within the same text). Both types, i.e. exophoric and endophoric reference, involve presupposition. However, only endophoric reference is cohesive in Halliday and Hasan's terms. Endophoric reference may either be anaphoric or cataphoric. If anaphoric, the reference item is pointing to an item in the preceding text, if cataphoric, the reference item is pointing to an item in the succeeding text.

2.5.3.4 Substitution

Substitution, the fourth of these ties, is a grammatical relation in which a linguistic item is substituted, i.e. replaced or carried over by another. "What is carried over is a FORM, a word or a structural feature; and this happens in an environment where the referential meanings are not identical."³⁴ A tie of substitution consists of a substitute item (also referred to as a substitute 'counter' by Halliday and Hasan) as well as a presupposed item, i.e. the item which is substituted. A substitute item differs from a reference item in that it always retains the same structural role as the item it replaces, and can also be replaced by the same. The presupposed item is usually recoverable from the text, i.e. most instances of substitution are endophoric relations and most of these anaphoric, although even exophoric substitution is possible under certain circumstances. Substitute items in English are: a) *one*, *ones* and *same*; b) *do*, and c) *so* and *not*. While the items in a) substitute for nouns, the item in b), i.e. *do*, does so for verbs, and

those in c) for clauses. Because of the grammatical function of these items a distinction is made between a) nominal, b) verbal, and c) clausal substitution.

2.5.3.5 Ellipsis

The fifth tie, that of *ellipsis*, will be dealt with in a separate chapter, since this is the environment for verbal ellipsis, the concern of this research.

¹ALLEN, J.P.B. Some Basic Concepts in Linguistics. In: ALLEN, J.P.B. & CORDER, S.P., ed. *The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics*. London, Oxford University Press, 1976. v.2, p.29.

²HALLIDAY, M.A.K. *Learning How to Mean*. London, Arnold, 1975. p.8.

³HALLIDAY, *Learning ...*, p.4.

⁴HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & HASAN, R. *Cohesion in English*. London, Longman, 1979. p.5.

⁵HALLIDAY, *Learning ...*, p.41.

⁶HALLIDAY, M.A.K. Language Structure and Language Function. In: LYONS, J., ed. *New Horizons in Linguistics*. Harmondsworth, Penguin, 1977. p.143.

⁷HALLIDAY, *Language...*, p.143.

⁸HALLIDAY, *Language...*, p.143.

⁹HALLIDAY, *Language...*, p.143.

¹⁰HALLIDAY, *Learning...*, p.35

¹¹KRESS, G., ed. *Halliday: System and Function in Language*. London, Oxford University Press, 1976. p.19.

¹²HALLIDAY, *Language...*, p.165.

¹³KRESS, p.56.

¹⁴KRESS, p.58.

¹⁵KRESS, p.34.

¹⁶HALLIDAY, M.A.K.; McINTOSH, A.; STREVEENS, P. *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*. London, Longmans, 1966. p.23-4.

¹⁷BERRY, M. *An Introduction to Systemic Linguistics*. London, B.T. Batsford, 1975. v.1, p.74.

¹⁸KRESS, p.34.

¹⁹HALLIDAY, Language..., p.144.

²⁰KRESS, p.159.

²¹ALLEN, J.P.B. & WIDDOWSON, H.G. Grammar and Language Teaching.
In: ALLEN, J.P.B. & CORDER, S.P., ed. *The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics*. London, Oxford University Press, 1976. v.2, p.75.

²²ALLEN & WIDDOWSON, p.75.

²³HALLIDAY, M.A.K. Notes on transitivity and theme in English.
Journal of Linguistics, 3: 212, 1967. Quoted by ALLEN & WIDDOWSON, p.82.

²⁴ALLEN & WIDDOWSON, p.84.

²⁵KRESS, p.182.

²⁶KRESS, p.29.

²⁷HALLIDAY & HASAN, p.1.

²⁸HALLIDAY & HASAN, p.2.

²⁹HALLIDAY & HASAN, p.2.

³⁰THE NEW Webster Encyclopedic Dictionary of the English Language.
Chicago, Consolidated Book, 1970. v.1, p.160.

³¹HALLIDAY, McINTOSH, STREVEENS, p.248.

³²HALLIDAY & HASAN, p.7.

³³HALLIDAY AND HASAN, p.226.

³⁴HALLIDAY & HASAN, p.316.

3 VERBAL ELLIPSIS

3.1 THE CONCEPT OF ELLIPSIS

The last of the cohesive ties which exist in the English language and by which text is created, is that of *ellipsis*. Ellipsis (Greek *elleipsis*, an omission or defect, from *elleipō*, to leave out - *ek*, out and *leipō*, to leave) is defined in the New Webster Encyclopedic Dictionary of the English Language as "the omission of one or more words which the hearer or reader may supply".¹ Ellipsis as a cohesive tie does not, however, cover every case of omission of words in which the hearer or reader must supply information for interpretation. Ellipsis within the context of cohesion refers to "sentences, clauses etc whose structure is such as to presuppose some preceding item, which then serves as the source of the missing information".² An elliptical structure is one which, in a sense, leaves selected grammatical gaps to be completed from another source. Hence the function and role of elliptical items parallel those of substitution, although, as we have previously stated, in the case of substitution a 'counter' is utilized (such as *do* and *one*) and the same 'counter' functions as a place marker for the presupposed item. On the other hand, in ellipsis no 'counter' is utilized, i.e. the gap is completed by substitution by zero. While in substitution the substitute item can be replaced by that which it substitutes, the zero-

element in ellipsis can also be replaced by the item it presupposes. Therefore, as Quirk says, "words are ellipted only if they are uniquely recoverable, ie there is no doubt as to what words are to be supplied, and it is possible to add the recovered words to the sentence".³ Ellipsis (this terminology is used to refer henceforth to a cohesive tie) is thus a form of presupposition. It refers to a tie which is made up of, first, a presupposing item that is either partially or totally ellipted and, secondly, a presupposed item which provides the hearer or reader with the missing information. Ellipsis is, therefore, together with substitution, primarily an endophoric or textual relation, i.e. the omitted element or elements may be recovered from within the same text. In most instances the tie is anaphoric, occasionally cataphoric, and may even be exophoric (The latter is, however, irrelevant to textual cohesion).^{*} Together with substitution, ellipsis is considered grammatical cohesion, or, to use Halliday and Hasan's words, it is "a form of relation between sentences, where it is an aspect of the essential texture. The relevance of ellipsis in the present context is its role in grammatical cohesion".⁴ As in the case of substitution, there are three types of ellipsis: nominal ellipsis (i.e. ellipsis within the nominal group); verbal ellipsis (i.e. ellipsis within the verbal group); and clausal ellipsis (i.e. ellipsis referring to a clause). While nominal and verbal ellipsis are two separate phenomena, verbal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis in general co-occur.

^{*}For the definition of 'anaphoric', 'cataphoric' and 'exophoric' see p. 21.

At this stage in our research it is felt useful to summarize our description of the various cohesive ties given thus far in this and in the preceding chapter, in the following table:

Table 6: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FIVE COHESIVE TIES

TYPE OF COHESIVE RELATION	LINGUISTIC LEVEL OF REALIZATION	NATURE OF RELATION	PRIMARY REALIZATION
lexical cohesion	formal	phoric	lexis
reference	semantic	phoric	grammar
substitution	formal	phoric	grammar
ellipsis	formal	phoric	grammar
conjunction	formal/semantic	non-phoric	grammar/lexis

Before describing verbal ellipsis in English, two observations ought to be made: first, regarding the function of ellipsis and, secondly, regarding the importance of ellipsis. The basic function of ellipsis "is to create cohesion by leaving out, under definite rules, what can be taken over from the preceding discourse, making explicit only what contrasts with it".⁵ Quirk⁶ has also stated that ellipsis is used to avoid repetition and focus attention on what is new. As to the importance of ellipsis, it must be said that in the past scholars had already recognized the importance of ellipsis and had investigated this linguistic phenomenon. In "Language and Mind", Noam Chomsky mentions one of the major figures of Renaissance grammar, the scholar Sanctius, who had already developed "his concept of ellipsis as a fundamental property

of language".⁷ The examples given by Sanctius are, according to Chomsky, "closely parallel to those that were used to develop the theory of deep and surface structure".⁸ However, Sanctius considered his concept of ellipsis, "merely as a device for the interpretation of texts".⁹ The importance of ellipsis was stressed not only by Sanctius, but has also been stressed by Lyons who stated that ellipsis "is one of the most important and one of the most obvious effects of contextualization".¹⁰ This latter term is understood as 'creation of text'.

3.2 VERBAL ELLIPSIS

3.2.1 Verbal group defined

As stated above, verbal ellipsis is ellipsis within the verbal group, i.e. within that unit 'group' which consists of the class of items denominated verbs. It has been mentioned above that a class of items is made up of items that have in common a shared possibility of realizing a certain element within a given structure in the unit immediately above on the rank scale. Verbal groups, then, share the possibility of occurring in what is called the element P (Predicator) in the structure of a clause, i.e. the element which, as it has been seen, refers to processes in functional terms. "Thus the class 'verbal group', a class of the unit 'group' is that set of items that can operate as 'predicator' in clause structure."¹¹

3.2.2 Structure of the verbal group

Verbs in English (not including modals) have from three to five variants, with the exception of *be* which has a total of eight. Halliday's labels for the different forms of verb have been adopted and adapted as shown in the following table.

Table 7: VERB FORMS

LABELS	THE VERB FORMS WHICH THE LABELS STAND FOR		EXAMPLES			
			3 variant verb: put	4 variant verb: come, walk	5 variant verb: go	8 variant verb: be
x ^o	'o'-form	infinitive (base-form)	put	come, walk	go	be
x ^f	'f'-form	's'-form present tense	put, puts	come, comes; walk, walks	go, goes	am, is, are
		'd'-form past tense	put	came, walked	went	was, were
x ^η	'η'-form	present participle	putting	coming, walking	going	being
x ⁿ	'n'-form	past participle	put	come, walked	gone	been

Note: 'x' may stand for any lexical verb.

All verbs having the forms x^o, x^f, x^η and xⁿ may occupy the place of the final element within the verbal group. This final element is the obligatory element (head) within the verbal group. Verbs which can occupy this place are lexical verbs. If the lexical verb is in either the x^s or x^d form, it cannot be preceded by another verb and thus in itself forms a verbal

group. If the lexical verb is either in the x^0 , x^n or x^n form, it may form a verbal group by itself or may be preceded by one, or more than one, auxiliary verb, referred to as 'operator' in Halliday's terminology.

A distinction may be made between simple and compound verbal groups*. A verbal group is simple, if it consists solely of V (i.e. a lexical verb). A verbal group is compound, if it has the structure A-V, A-A-V, A-A-A-V and so on (an obligatory lexical verb preceded by one or more auxiliary verbs).** Hence according to their place within the structure of the verbal group, verbs may be classified into lexical verbs and auxiliary verbs (operators).***

Most linguists distinguish between two categories of auxiliary verb. However, they do not agree about the category in which they would place certain auxiliaries. It has been decided to adopt the following categorization whereby operators (auxiliary verbs) are divided into modals and non-modals (the

*A further distinction ought to be made between the compound and the complex verbal group. The latter consists of two distinct verbal groups such as:

- a) I desperately *want to finish* this paper.
- b) *To want to finish* one's dissertation is a perfectly understandable desire.

Thus complex verbal groups can be composed of a finite/followed by a non-finite verbal group (as in a) above) or two juxtaposed non-finite verbal groups (as in b) above).

**Although it would not be irrelevant to discuss every possible combination within the verbal group in English, it was felt more convenient, on pragmatic grounds of space and time, to simply include Halliday's comprehensive table of all structural combinations of the active finite verbal group as an appendix. See p. 92

***For other criteria by which verbs are classified into lexical and auxiliary verbs see MUIR, J. A Modern Approach to English Grammar. London, B.T. Batsford, 1978. p.42.

latter being referred to by other linguists as primary auxiliaries and by Halliday and Hasan as temporal or tense operators).

Table 8: OPERATORS IN ENGLISH

		FORMS	EXPRESSIONS		
operators (auxiliaries)	non-modal or tense operators	be	be ^o	be	
			be ^f	am/is/are/was/were	
			be ⁿ	being	
			be ⁿ	been	
		have	have ^o	have	
			have ^f have ⁿ	have/has/had having	
	will/shall	will ^o will ⁿ	will/shall/would/should going to / about to		
		do	do ^f	do/does/did	
	modal operators	have (to)	have ^o have ^f have ⁿ	have to have/has/had to having to	
			'f'-forms only	can will shall must ought (to) need dare be (to)	can/could will/would shall/should must ought to need dare is/am/are/was/were to

Note: As mentioned in the introduction the present research is restricted to verbal ellipsis in the active voice.

A distinction must also be made between a finite and a non-finite verbal group, both of which "realize the clause element 'predicator'".¹² A verbal group is finite if the first element of the verbal group structure is occupied by a finite verb form, i.e. 'f'-form of either a lexical or auxiliary verb (operator). Examples are:

- He *went* abroad.
- He *was travelling* in Europe.

They *haven't arrived* yet.

She *will be studying* this afternoon.

A verbal group is non-finite if the first element of the verbal group structure is occupied by either an 'η'- or 'o'-(infinitive with *to*) form of a lexical verb or auxiliary verb, such as

I wanted *to finish* this dissertation two years ago.

I wanted *to have done* it by now.

Writing a dissertation is not all it is said to be.

Having completed this paper, I shall now go on to greater things.

A final distinction must be made between complete and elliptical forms of the verbal group. Elliptical forms are those which presuppose some elements from another verbal group within the same next.

3.2.3 Systemic selections in the verbal group

Halliday and Hasan who describe verbal ellipsis in systemic terms, maintain that a verbal group is elliptical if its structure does not represent all its systemic features. By systemic features or systemic selections Halliday and Hasan mean the *either/or* choices that must be made from the various systems within the grammar. Systemic linguists see the grammar as a network of systems, a system being a list of choices or terms, from which it is possible to choose.* The systems of

*"What are these 'things between which it is possible to choose'? They are *meanings* between which the grammar of a language is able to distinguish. (....) The items in a system are, then, distinct and distinguishable meanings. The technical name for these items is the *terms* in the systems, although sometimes they are referred to as *options*. (The latter name for them emphasises the fact that they are things between which choices are made.)

Although distinct, the terms of a particular system have something

number, gender, polarity, tense, mood and so on, are obvious examples.

According to Halliday and Hasan there are certain obligatory choices or selections that must be made within the verbal group from the following systems (considered the principal systems within the verbal group by Halliday and Hasan):

a) the system of finiteness where one must choose between the terms finite and non-finite. These terms may in turn become entry points for other systems. Therefore, once finite has been chosen, one must in turn choose between indicative and imperative (the system of mood), and if indicative has been chosen, one must in turn choose between modal and non-modal (the system of modality).

b) the system of polarity where one must choose between positive and negative, marked and unmarked.

c) the system of voice where one must choose between active and passive.

d) the system of tense where, according to Halliday and Hasan, one must choose between three terms: past, present and future. It is worth noting here that other linguists (notably Quirk et alii¹³) have restricted the system of tense to a binary choice of past and present rather than a three-term system.

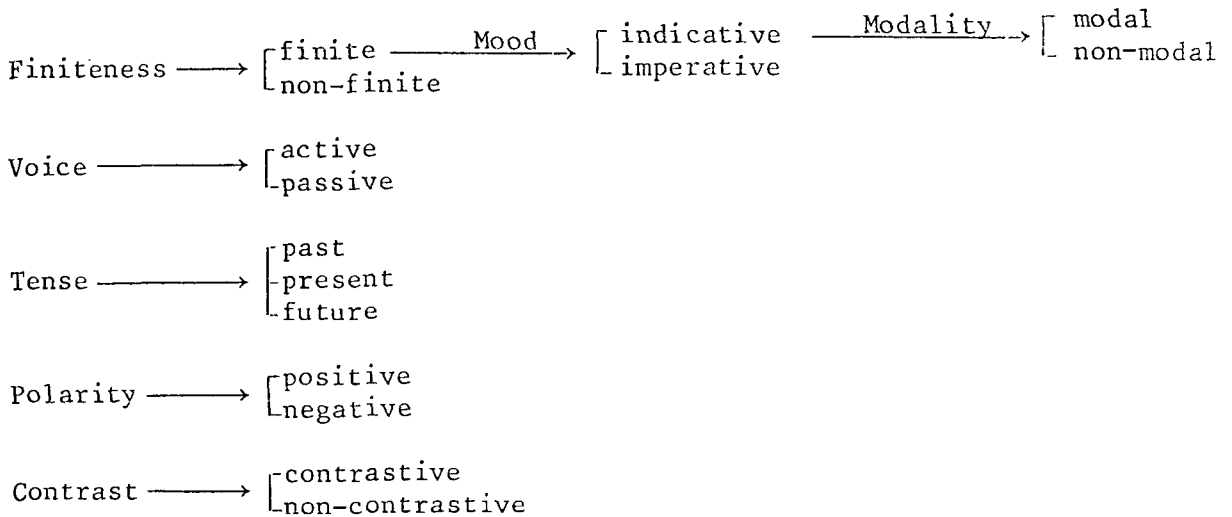
in common. They belong to the same area of meaning. Singular and plural are distinct but they both have to do with number. Past, present and future are distinct but they all have to do with time. (....)

The terms in a system, then, are distinct meanings within a common area of meaning." (BERRY, M. *An Introduction to Systemic Linguistics*. London, B.T. Batsford, 1975. v.1, p.143-4.)

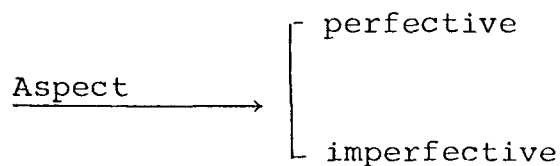
e) In spoken English another choice must be made, i.e. within the system of contrast where one must choose between contrastive and non-contrastive.

The systems from which choices need to be made within all verbal groups, have been summarized in the following table:

Table 9: OBLIGATORY VERBAL GROUP SYSTEMS



A non-finite verbal group becomes the entry point for another obligatory system, i.e. the system of aspect where one must choose between perfective and imperfective.



A non-finite verbal group, which also functions as predicator in clause structure, is perfective when its first element is in the form of x^0 preceded by *to*. Examples are: *to see*, *to study*;

to have seen, to have studied. While the first two have the systemic features perfective/present*, the last two have the features perfective/past. A non-finite verbal group is imperfective when its first element is realized by an 'η'-form of the verb, such as *seeing, studying; having seen, having studied.* Here again, a choice from the tense system has been made so that *seeing* and *studying* are imperfective/present, while *having seen* and *having studied* are imperfective/past.

Examples:

He went to New York *to learn* English. (perfective/present).

I wanted *to have seen* it. (perfective/past).

Being among Americans, he learned English quickly.
(imperfective/present)

Having gone to New York, he learned English rapidly.
(imperfective/past)

As in the case of a finite verbal group, a non-finite verbal group can either have an elliptical or a complete form.

Did you want *to go* there? (complete form)

Yes, I wanted *to* . (elliptical form)

The systemic features are not expressed in a one-to-one relationship between feature and formal item within the verbal group. They are expressed by the verbal group as a whole, i.e. by all the items within the group and their structural arrangement.

The verbal group *will have taken* is

a) finite, because *will* is in its finite form (*will^f*).

*Halliday uses / to indicate that the choice of tense is independent of the choice of aspect.

- b) positive, because no negative element is present.
- c) non-modal, because no modal operator is present.
- d) active, because the final positions are not occupied by a form of *be*, followed by x^n .
- e) past in future.

3.2.4 Difficulties in recognizing verbal ellipsis

For various reasons an elliptical verbal group cannot be distinguished at a cursory glance from a complete verbal group.

The fact that there is no one-to-one relationship between the elements of structure and the systemic selections within the verbal group,* is one of the reasons for this difficulty.

A second source of ambiguity is the fact that many verbs have multivalent forms, such as the realization of *have^s* as *have* in a finite (a) and *have^o* preceded by *to* in a non-finite (b) verbal group. Examples are:

- a) I have studied there.
Oh, *have* you? (finite, *have^s*, elliptical verbal group)
- b) I wanted to *have* that card. (non-finite, *have^o* preceded by *to*, complete verbal group).

A further source of possible uncertainty also hinges on the fact that all regular verbs and some irregular verbs have the same realization for their 'd'-and 'n'-forms (*happened-happened*, *lost-lost*). In

*This fact has also been underlined by Muir in the following way:
"The verbal group is one of the most complex areas of English grammar. This complexity is brought about by the fact that a relatively large number of systemic choices are made here, and there is not a one-to-one correspondence between a term in a system and an element of structure realising this choice. The same element(s) of structure may be the realisation of a number of systemic choices." (MUIR, p.41.)

Was it lost?
No, *sold*.

sold is an elliptical verbal group and is realized by *sell*ⁿ. In

He *sold* it.

sold is a complete verbal group by itself, in its *sell*^d-form.

A third reason why it is difficult to distinguish an elliptical form from a complete form of a verbal group is the fact that some verbs are multi-functional (function in the sense of use), i.e. they are used as lexical verbs as well as operators. These verbs are the non-modal operators *do*, *have* and *be* in their forms

do^f

have^o, *have*^f, *have*ⁿ, *have*ⁿ

be^o, *be*^f, *be*ⁿ, *be*ⁿ

Examples:

a) Can't *do* them any good. It couldn't *do* them any good.

Was that a paradox?
Perhaps it *was*.

I still have a little dried pea of humility rattling inside me. I don't think you *have*.

b) Frank: What about old Mick? Don't look so glum, Jean.
You know what everybody's like.

Jean: *Do* I?

Jean: I wasn't getting at you. No, I *wasn't*.

One of them noticed Grant and commented, "Why, here's a stranger, gentlemen, and it looks as if he's traveled through hell itself".
"I *have*," agreed Grant.*

While in a) the verbs in italics are lexical verbs, in b) they are operators.

A verbal group has been said to consist of a primary class of formal items, i.e. verbs, and these, in turn, are

*The sources from which most of the examples were obtained are given at the end of the bibliography.

subdivided into two secondary classes, i.e. lexical verbs and operators (or auxiliaries). It is by reason of this subdivision that two types of verbal ellipsis may be distinguished, i.e. lexical and operator ellipsis.

3.2.5 Types of verbal ellipsis

3.2.5.1 Lexical ellipsis

Lexical ellipsis is that type of verbal ellipsis in which the obligatory verb (i.e. the lexical verb) of the verbal group is omitted.

Is he *talking*?
Yes, he is.

The lexical verb always occupies the final position within the structure of the verbal group, i.e. in graphic, linear representation the place to the right or back. Lexical ellipsis is therefore at times referred to as ellipsis from the right and at times ellipsis from the back. (See footnote p.42)

These definitions are quite straightforward. However, it is not always easy to recognize whether a verbal group is lexically ellipted.

If a verbal group consists solely of a modal operator, it must be considered lexically ellipted. Modal operators, as is known, occupy the first place within the structure of a verbal group and are always finite. The following examples:

- a) Yes, I *can*.
- b) You *might*, if you do the dishes.
- c) John *must*.

are all finite verbal groups consisting exclusively of a modal operator. The remainder of the group must be recovered from

the surrounding context. The presupposed items could have the following forms respectively:

- a) *Can* you *do* the dishes?
- b) *Can* I *go* to the movies?
- c) Who *must do* the dishes?

Thus it is easy to recognize a lexically ellipted verbal group which consists solely of a modal operator. However, it becomes more difficult to recognize lexical ellipsis within a verbal group, if the verbal group ends in one of the non-modal operators, such as *be* and *have*, since *be* and *have* can also be lexical verbs. Hence a verbal group ending in *be* or *have* can either be a complete verbal group or an elliptical verbal group. With *be* as in

Are they Americans?
They *may be*.

the verbal group is not elliptical. In the following example

Are they playing soccer in the rain?
They *may be*.

may be is the elliptical form of

They *may be* playing soccer in the rain.

With *have* as in

Yes, he *has*.

the verbal group may also be an elliptical or a complete form. This may, in turn, be recovered from the presupposed item. In

Has he a car?
Yes, he *has*.

there is no lexical ellipsis within the verbal group. *Yes he has* means *Yes, he has a car*. In

Has he bought a car?
Yes, he *has*.

there is lexical ellipsis within the verbal group, since the complete form is *Yes, he has bought a car.*

The verbal groups in

No, he hasn't. and *Has he?* as well as *No, he isn't.*

and *Is he?* may also be either elliptical or complete. In

Has he a car?
No, he hasn't.

and

He has a new car.
Has he?

there are only complete verbal groups (followed by ellipsis of the complement, however). In

Has he bought a car?
No, he hasn't.

and

He has bought a new car.
Has he?

they are elliptical; their complete forms are *(No, he) hasn't bought (a new car).* and *Has (he) bought (a new car)?*

In these cases the lexical verb must be followed by the complement. Thus **No, he hasn't bought.* and **Has he bought?* are unacceptable in English. It may be concluded that if a lexical verb is followed by a complement in the presupposed item within a tie, and the complement is omitted in the presupposing item, the lexical verb must also be omitted.

Was he buying a book? *No, he wasn't.*
**No, he wasn't buying.*

With lexical *be* and *have* this rule does not apply. The complement can be omitted after lexical *be* and *have* (synonym for *possess*). So, if a verbal group ends in a form of *be* and *have*, it can either be an elliptical verbal group in which the lexical verb has been omitted, or an unellipted verbal group followed by ellipsis of the complement (see above for examples).

However, every time *be* and *have* are followed by a complement, they can only be lexical verbs and the verbal group is not ellipted.

She is the new math teacher.
He has a beard.

A verbal group ending in *do* can similarly be both, elliptical and complete in form. However, it presents more complications than in cases with *be* and *have*, since *do* can function in five ways:

- a) lexical verb (I have *done* my work.)
- b) general verb (They *did* a dance. They *do* lunches.)
- c) pro-verb (What are you *doing*?)
- d) verbal substitute (Have you called the doctor? - I haven't *done* yet, but I will *do*.
I think you should *do*.)

- e) operator (*Did* she come? *Do* you smoke. No, I *don't*.)

While *do* in a), b), c) and d) occupies the final position within the verbal group, the non-modal operator *do* is always finite and thus occupies the first position within the verbal group. Ambiguity thus only arises with the finite forms of *do*, i.e. *do*^f: *do*, *does*, *did* when positive polarity has been selected.

He *did* his job. (lexical verb)

Did Fred go? No, but Harry *did*. (verbal substitute)

Most of the time I've loathed it and loathed them. I pretended to myself that I didn't, but I *did*. (operator)

Since the lexical verb *do* forms its negative form like any other lexical verb with the operator *do*^{*}, verbal groups

*I *don't do* the dishes.
He *doesn't do* his homework.
She *didn't do* it.

and not:

*I *don't* the dishes.
*He *doesn't* his homework.
*She *didn't* it.

ending in *don't*, *doesn't* and *didn't* are always lexically ellipted.

I don't understand it. I really *don't*.

Billy: She doesn't want to hear about your troubles.

Phebe: No of course she *doesn't*.

Linda: But you opened it today.

Willy: Me: I *didn't*.

The same applies to question forms. Therefore if a verbal group consists solely of *do*, *does* and *did* and is followed by the subject of the clause, it can only be lexically ellipted.

a) Phebe: Frank likes the idea, don't you?

Jean: *Do you*, Frank?

b) He doesn't have anyone to talk to. *Does he*?

c) Did I tell you about the wife. *Did I*?

Lexical ellipsis, i.e. omission of the lexical verb within the verbal group, has thus been exemplified in finite verbal groups. The following example by Firth (as quoted by Palmer) illustrates lexical ellipsis in finite verbal groups within a single context. (It also illustrates the fact that elliptical forms are not intelligible unless the presupposed item is known.)

Do you think he will?

I don't know. He might.

I suppose he ought to, but perhaps he feels he can't.

Well, his brothers have. They perhaps think he needn't.

Perhaps eventually he may. I think he should, and I very much hope he will.¹⁴

The presupposed item (called *key to the code* by Palmer) is *join the army*.

Omission of the lexical verb must be accompanied, if not repudiated,* by ellipsis of the remainder of the clause,

*"The notion of repudiation is explained as follows. In any anaphoric context, something is carried over from a previous instance. What is carried over may be the whole of what there was or it may be only part of

as seen in many of the previous examples. It should also be pointed out at this stage that lexical ellipsis, which has also been called ellipsis from the right, may move toward the left, i.e. it can be accompanied by ellipsis of one or more than one operator, with the exception of the one at first element.* In the question-answer sequence:

Could she have been going to swim?
Yes, she could have been going to swim.

the following elliptical answer forms are possible:

Yes, she *could have been going to*.
Yes, she *could have been*.
Yes, she *could have*.
Yes, she *could*.

However, according to Halliday and Hasan, the two forms preferred are "that which is minimally elliptical with ONLY the lexical verb omitted, or that with everything omitted that can be presupposed from the context".¹⁵

Table 10: LEXICAL ELLIPSIS IN FINITE VERBAL GROUP

minimum omission of elements	lexical verb	swim
maximum remaining elements	all operators	could have been going to
maximum omission of elements	all verbs except first operator	have been going to swim
minimum remaining elements	first operator	could

it; and if it is only a part of it, then the remainder, that which is not carried over, has to be REPUDIATED." (HALLIDAY & HASAN, p.93) In

Will you be studying?

No, sleeping.

the verb *sleeping* repudiates the verb *studying*.

* The expressions 'left' and 'right' have been used by Halliday and Hasan. Although it is understood that they refer to the written form, they will be retained throughout the discussion.

Another type of lexical ellipsis is found in verbal groups ending in *to*. This type occurs

a) in finite verbal groups,

- i) after a final non-modal operator *will*ⁿ, i.e. *going to*, *about to*.

He didn't really fire you.
Well, I think he was *going to*.

Have you finished your paper?
I'm just *about to*.

- ii) after modal operators, such as *ought to*, *have to*, *be to*.

Do you remember Brother Weinard?
I *ought to*.

This time I didn't want to go back to Greenoaks.
"You won't *have to*, Joni" said dad.

I am to do that. Am I *to*?

b) in non-finite verbal groups after certain lexical verbs such as *love*, *like*, *hate*, *want*, *try*, *hope*, *mean*, etc. (at times referred to as catenatives).

"Wouldn't you consider cheering me after a depressing day with late adolescents by having dinner with me?"
"We'd *love to*," Sara said enthusiastically.

Did you see the Empire State Building?
I *meant to*, but had neither time nor money.

Are you going to call your friends?
I *hope to*.

Sally: Come in? But ...well, yes, ...do ...if you *want to*.

In the case of negative lexically ellipted non-finite verbal groups *not* can precede the infinitive marker *to*.

I hope *not to*.

It is worth mentioning that these verbs (as given in b)) constitute a separate verbal group (see footnote page 29), so that

meant to represents two verbal groups, a complete finite verbal group consisting solely of *meant* and a lexically ellipted non-finite verbal group consisting solely of *to*.

A word of caution would not be amiss at this point. It must be pointed out that in

I never tell people where I am going to.

going to is not a lexically ellipted verbal group ending in the infinitive marker *to*, but is made up of the lexical verb *go* (in its 'v'-form) plus the preposition *to*.

In the explanations given thus far, only lexical ellipsis in finite and non-finite verbal groups has been dealt with. However, the lexical verb may also be omitted in imperative verbal groups, as can be seen below.

The inclusive imperative, i.e. the one realized by *let's* followed by x^0 , such as *let's go*, may be lexically ellipted.

Shall we go?
Yes, *let's*.

Let's study.
No, *let's not*.

The imperative verbal groups have not been investigated separately by Halliday and Hasan. Therefore it is felt that further investigation of the imperative forms might be necessary. From cursory observation one is inclined to classify the inclusive imperative as a complex verbal group, as in *Watch me do it*, where the first element *watch* constitutes a finite verbal group, followed by a non-finite verbal group made up solely of x^0 , in this given example realized by *do*.

The exclusive imperative, i.e. the one realized by x^0 alone, may also show lexical ellipsis.

Shall I close the door?
Yes, *do*.
No, *don't*.*

3.2.5.2 Operator ellipsis

The second type of verbal ellipsis is referred to by Halliday and Hasan as operator ellipsis. Operator ellipsis is, as the expression implies, that type of verbal ellipsis in which one or more than one operator (auxiliary verb) is omitted from the verbal group.

What is he doing?
Studying.

As mentioned earlier, operators precede the lexical verb, i.e. they occupy the places to the left of the lexical verb. Therefore, operator ellipsis is at times referred to as ellipsis from the left, and at times ellipsis from the front. While in lexical ellipsis the first element must always stay intact, in operator ellipsis it is the lexical verb that cannot be ellipted from the verbal group. Operator ellipsis "is characteristic of responses which are closely tied to a preceding question or statement, and which have the specific function of supplying, confirming, or repudiating a lexical verb".¹⁶

a) What were you doing yesterday?
Studying. (supplying)

*According to QUIRK & GREENBAUM, p.202 *let's*, *do*, and *don't* are introductory imperative markers in these cases.

b) Were you sleeping?
No, studying. (repudiating)

c) You were studying.
Yes, studying. (confirming)

While in a) *studying* supplies the answer to the question, in b) it repudiates the verb *sleeping* and in c) it confirms the same verb.

Although it is fairly easy to recognize operator ellipsis (there is no finite element within the verbal group), two sources of uncertainty may arise. The first may occur with all regular verbs and some irregular verbs whose 'd'-and 'n'-forms are the same.

a) He had allowed it.
Allowed, yes. (operator ellipsis)

He *allowed* her to go. (no ellipsis)

b) What have you done recently?
Read Halliday. (operator ellipsis)

c) What did you do yesterday?
Read Halliday. (no ellipsis)

The second source of uncertainty lies in the fact that a complete non-finite verbal group may have the same form as a finite verbal group with operator ellipsis. It is only by establishing the ties within the context that one can tell whether there is verbal ellipsis or not.

a) What are you doing?
Going to the theater. (finite, operator ellipsis)

What did he enjoy?
Going to the theater. (non-finite, no ellipsis)

b) Had they been studying?
No, *swimming*. (finite, operator ellipsis)

Do you like hiking?
No, *swimming*. (non-finite, no ellipsis)

The perfective form of the non-finite verbal group which almost always begins with the infinitive marker *to*, may also

be elliptical:

What did he try to do?

Break the door down. (non-finite, ellipsis of *to*)

This latter clause could be ambiguous, since the non-elliptical imperative has the same form:

Break the door down. There's somebody trapped inside.
(imperative, no ellipsis)

With lexical ellipsis the remainder of the clause, i.e. the whole propositional element, has to be ellipted, if not repudiated;* with operator ellipsis it is the modal block that has to be omitted from the clause [i.e. the subject is always omitted with the operator(s)].

What have they been doing?

(*They have been*) Swimming

He must have been doing something.

(*He must have been*) Walking.

While with lexical ellipsis, omission of operators may take place by movement toward the left, with operator ellipsis it may move toward the right, i.e. not only the first operator, but all the subsequent operators may be omitted; the lexical verb, however, must stay intact. In answer to a longer verbal group, such as

What could he have been doing?

the following would be possible:

Been going to swim, I think.

Going to swim, I think.

Swim, I think.

It ought to be remembered that, as with all elliptical verbal groups, the full answer form could also be possible:

He could have been going to swim, I think.

*See p. 41 for definition of 'repudiation'.

3.2.6 Presupposition in verbal ellipsis

Having dealt with verbal ellipsis in both finite and non-finite, and in imperative verbal groups, the question might now be asked: "What is and what is not presupposed in systemic terms?" This can best be answered by examining the various verbal group systems separately.

3.2.6.1 Polarity

Polarity is expressed a) by the presence or absence of *not* or *n't* after the finite verb in a finite verbal group and b) by the presence or absence of *not* as first word in a non-finite verbal group. *Not* or *n't* may be replaced at times by other negative adverbs such as *never*, *hardly*, *hardly ever*, for which, however, other placement rules apply. Since in a lexically ellipsed finite verbal group the first operator must always be present, polarity is always expressed and cannot be carried over from the presupposed group.

Was he studying?

Yes, he *was*. (positive; absence of *not* or *n't*)

Has he slept well?

No, he *hasn't*. (negative; presence of *n't*)

In non-finite verbal groups polarity is also expressed.

He told us *not to*. (negative; presence of *not*)

He wanted *to*. (positive; absence of *not*.)*

In the majority of cases polarity is not presupposed in operator ellipsis (an exception would be echo-questions). This is due

*Sometimes *not* is placed within the first verbal group. However, this may involve change of meaning, as in:

He tried not to.

He didn't try to.

to the fact that operator ellipsis takes place, for example, in answers to *wh*-questions where the lexical verb must be supplied and polarity can only be positive.

What have you been doing?
Studying.

Operator ellipsis in a *yes/no* question-answer sequence requires that polarity be supplied in the response and therefore cannot be presupposed.

Were you studying?
Yes, studying.

Were you studying?
No, not studying

3.2.6.2 Finiteness

Finiteness is also expressed by the first item in the verbal group, i.e. by the 'f'-form of either a lexical verb or modal or non-modal operator. A non-elliptical verbal group that does not have the 'f'-form of a verb as the first element, is automatically non-finite. Since in a lexically ellipted finite verbal group the element never omitted is the finite operator, finiteness is always expressed. Finiteness is therefore always expressed and cannot be carried over. The fact that non-finite: perfective* verbal groups usually begin with the infinitive marker *to*, facilitates the recognition of a finite versus a non-finite verbal group.

We will have a talk tomorrow.
 Yes, we *will*. (finite; remainder: 'f'-form of *will*)

Are you going to study?
 I don't want *to*. (non-finite; remainder: infinitive marker *to*)

*Halliday uses a colon to indicate that the choice of 'perfective' is dependent on the choice of 'non-finite'.

3.2.6.3 Modality

As with finiteness and polarity, *modality* is also tied to the initial element. A verbal group is modal if the first element is a modal operator (see page 30), otherwise it is non-modal. In lexical ellipsis modality is thus always expressed and cannot be carried over. In operator ellipsis, however, it is always presupposed, since omission of the first element is obligatory.

Try and say something to her, Jean.

I wish I *could*. (lexical ellipsis, modality expressed)

Could he have been studying?

No, swimming. (operator ellipsis, modality carried over)

3.2.6.4 Tense

The *tense* system in English is a rather complex one. This stems from the fact that, according to Halliday and Hasan, one must choose not between two terms, but three, and that choices of these terms may be repeated up to five times (i.e. tense is recursive) within the same verbal group. A distinction is thus made between simple tense (simple tense selection) and compound tense (compound tense selection). Simple tenses make only one choice within the verbal group, i.e. either past, present or future is chosen. If only one selection is made, past is realized by x^d , present by x^s , and future by *will/shall* followed by x^o .

<u>Tense</u> →	[past	x^d
		present	x^s
		future	<i>will/shall</i> + x^o

If a second choice is made, then past is realized by x^n preceded by either past, present or future of *have*. Present is

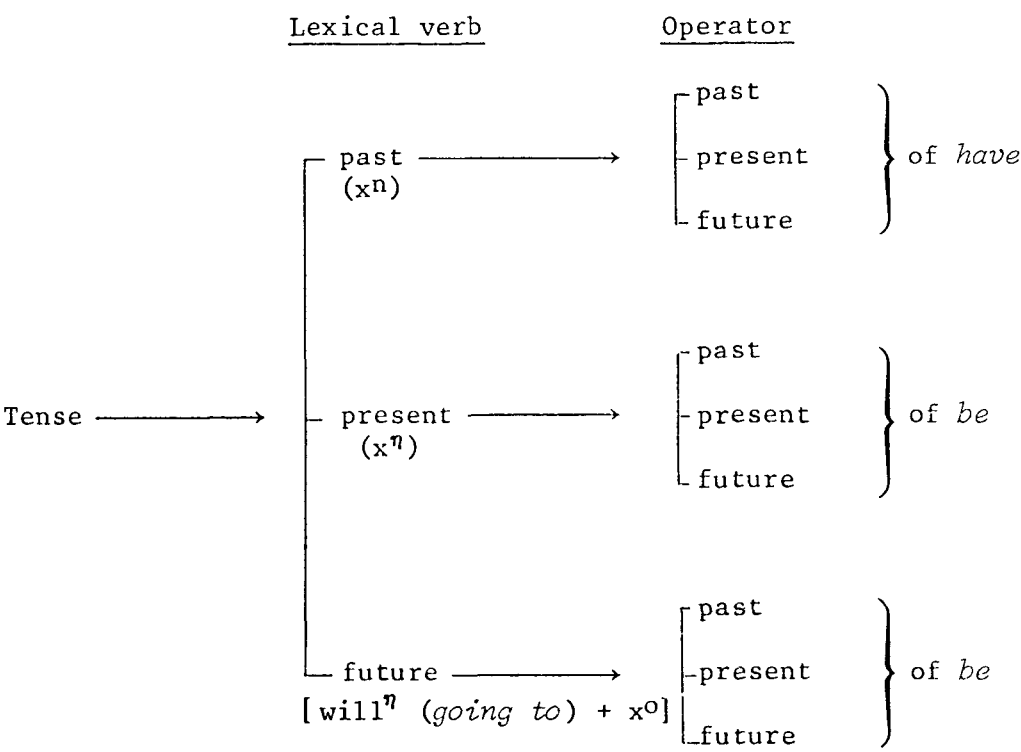
realized by x^n preceded by either past, present or future of *be*. Future is realized by will^n (*going go*) + x^0 preceded by either past, present or future of *be*.

Table 11: REALIZATION OF COMPOUND TENSE SELECTION WITH TWO CHOICES

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{will/shall + have}^d \\ \text{will/shall + have}^s \\ \text{will/shall + have}^o \end{array} \right\}$	$+ x^n$
$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{will/shall + be}^d \\ \text{will/shall + be}^s \\ \text{will/shall + be}^o \end{array} \right\}$	$+ x^n$
$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{will/shall + be}^d \\ \text{will/shall + be}^s \\ \text{will/shall + be}^o \end{array} \right\}$	$+ [\text{will}^n \text{ (going to) + } x^0]$

Therefore when a second choice is made, this generates the following nine compound tenses:

Table 12: NAMES OF COMPOUND TENSE SELECTIONS WITH TWO CHOICES



These tenses are: past in past, past in present, past in future; present in past, present in present, present in future; future in past, future in present, future in future. The primary tense (i.e. the first tense selection) always appears last in the name of the tense. Thus reading the name of a tense begins from the lexical verb and moves backward. In this way the name of *will have been going to have been swimming* reads then as present (swimming) in past (been) in future (going to have) in past (been) in future (will have), i.e. present in past in future in past in future. This tense form is the most complex in English, since the maximum number of selections, i.e. five selections, has been made.

However, there are some restrictions on the possible combinations. It may be useful to list them at this stage.

1) present may only be selected as first and final choice (i.e. at the extremes of the combinations).

2) except at the positions of first and second choice, the same tense cannot be selected twice in sequence.

3) future can only be chosen once at positions other than that of first choice.

Although tense may seem rather complex in English, presupposition of tense selections is quite straightforward. In a lexically ellipted verbal group with a simple tense selection, tense is always explicit and cannot be carried over from the presupposed group.

He objects. *Does* he?

She always helps us. She *didn't*, last time.

They don't work. They *will* if you try.

In a lexically ellipted verbal group with a compound tense choice, the lexical verb must be carried over in the same form from the presupposed group; i.e. the form of the last element (i.e. the lexical verb), whose tense selection is named first in the name of the verbal group, must always remain the same. Thus the following three lexically ellipted verbal groups whose presupposed items have the tense selections *future in past*, *present in present* and *past in present* may have *future in present*; *present in future* and *past in present* respectively. This point is illustrated in the following examples:

She was going to study.
She isn't (going to study) now.

I am studying English.
I shall be (studying English) every day.

He has done his work.
She hasn't (done hers).

So far, tense in lexical ellipsis has been restricted to illustrations within finite verbal groups. However, the same rules may be applied to non-finite verbal groups presupposed by non-finite verbal groups and in the case of presupposition involving both a finite and a second, non-finite verbal group. For example,

Did you want to see it?
Yes, I wanted to. (non-finite presupposed by non-finite)

Did you see it?
I meant to but didn't have time. (non-finite presupposed by finite).

With operator ellipsis, the total tense selection is usually carried over, i.e. it is presupposed.

What is he going to do tomorrow?
(He is going to) study for the test.

Has he been studying?
No, (he has been) sleeping.

Let us finally provide a graphic overview encompassing all the items dealt with above, in the following two tables.

Table 13: SUMMARY OF VERBAL ELLIPSIS IN THE FINITE VERBAL GROUP

	LEXICAL ELLIPSIS	OPERATOR ELLIPSIS
obligatory omission of (within verbal group)	final element i.e. lexical verb	initial element
optional omission of (within verbal group)	operators	other operators
minimum elements always retained (within verbal group)	first operator	lexical verb
obligatory omission of (within clause)	remainder of clause	subject of clause

Note: In order to include the non-finite verbal group in this table, more research seems warranted.

Table 14: PRESUPPOSITION OF SYSTEMIC SELECTIONS IN VERBAL ELLIPSIS

	LEXICAL ELLIPSIS	OPERATOR ELLIPSIS
Polarity	inapplicable (always expressed)	not presupposed
Finiteness and modality	inapplicable (always expressed)	presupposed
Tense	not presupposed (except last order tense selection in compound tense*)	presupposed unless repudiated

Table adapted from HALLIDAY & HASAN, p.192.

*'Last order tense' is the one mentioned first in the name of the tense.

NOTES

- ¹THE NEW Webster Encyclopedic Dictionary of the English Language. Chicago, Consolidated Book, 1970. v.1, p.281.
- ²HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & HASAN, R. *Cohesion in English*. London, Longman, 1979. p.143.
- ³QUIRK, R. et alii. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. London, Longman, 1974. p.536.
- ⁴HALLIDAY & HASAN, p.146.
- ⁵HALLIDAY & HASAN, p.196.
- ⁶QUIRK, R. & GREENBAUM, S. *A University Grammar of English*. London, Longman, 1977. p.306.
- ⁷CHOMSKY, N. *Language and Mind*. New York, Harcourt, Brace & Jovanovich, 1972. p.18.
- ⁸CHOMSKY, p.18.
- ⁹CHOMSKY, p.18.
- ¹⁰LYONS, J. *Semantics*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1978. v.2, p.589.
- ¹¹HALLIDAY, M.A.K.; McINTOSH, A.; STREVEVS, P. *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*. London, Longmans, 1966. p.29.
- ¹²KRESS, G., ed. *Halliday: System and Function in Language*. London, Oxford University Press, 1976. p.137.
- ¹³QUIRK, R. et alii, p.84.
- ¹⁴PALMER, F.R. *The English Verb*. London, Longman, 1974. p.24.
- ¹⁵HALLIDAY & HASAN, p.174.
- ¹⁶HALLIDAY AND HASAN, p.178.

4 ESTABLISHING THE PORTUGUESE COUNTERPARTS OF ELLIPTED VERBAL GROUPS IN ENGLISH

4.1 METHODOLOGY DEFINED

In this chapter an attempt will be made to compare English sentences containing verbal ellipsis with their translations in Portuguese in order to determine whether there are similarities or differences in these languages with regard to verbal ellipsis.

Although no description in systemic terms is available of the verbal group in Portuguese, an attempt will be made to establish acceptable Portuguese equivalents for certain cases of verbal ellipsis in English. For this purpose it has been assumed that, in each case of the examples presented, the meaning expressed by the verbal group in English is in some way equivalent to its counterpart in the Portuguese language. Certain verbs, such as *poder*, *dever*, *ter que*, will be considered operators here, because, besides being similar in meaning to the English *can*, *must*, *have to*, which are considered operators in Halliday's description, they also appear before the lexical verb within the verbal group.

The process by which the Portuguese equivalents for the cases of verbal ellipsis in English were established is explained below.

The examples used later to establish the Portuguese equivalents for these cases of verbal ellipsis in English come

from diverse sources, such as Time Magazine, Reader's Digest, Reader's Digest Condensed Books, several Christian magazines, several pedagogic grammars, and various modern plays by Osborne, Pinter and Miller (see bibliography). All the examples reflect spoken English, as they are taken from plays and from direct quotations in the above mentioned magazines.

Out of a total of more than two hundred examples of lexical and verbal ellipsis in finite, non-finite and imperative verbal groups, sixty were selected and compiled into a list which included the presupposing and the presupposed items of each cohesive tie. Attempts were made to cover all modal and non-modal operators by at least one example of lexical ellipsis. When, however, no example was found in a text, a suitable one was obtained from a native informant. These sixty examples were then translated into Portuguese by five teachers of English at the Federal University of Paraná, all of whom are native speakers of Portuguese. A second list containing all the translations given by these teachers was then handed to three teachers of Portuguese at the Federal University of Paraná, so that the best Portuguese equivalent for each case in English could be established. This resulted in up to three possible Portuguese equivalents for each English case.

What follows now is a list composed of the English examples and all the equivalents given by the Portuguese teachers. They have been arranged in the following way: The English example is given first. This is followed by one, two or three Portuguese equivalents according to the choices made by the Portuguese teachers. These in turn are followed by an examination of the ellipted verbal group in English and its

Portuguese counterpart(s) to ascertain whether they are similar or different.

4.2 EXAMINATION OF THE DATA

1. English: I'll destroy it.
Don't, Basil, *don't*.

Portuguese: a) Vou destruí-lo.
Não, Basil, *não o faça*.
b) Vou destruir isso.
Não, Basil, *não*.
c) Vou destruí-lo.
Não, Basílio, *não faça isso*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder: *do*;
negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) and c) No lexical ellipsis;
a different verbal group is used; negative polarity expressed.
b) Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
negative polarity.

Conclusion: Different.

2. English: You never had psychiatric help.
No, you *wouldn't*.

Portuguese: Você nunca teve ajuda psiquiátrica.
Não, você *não aceitaria*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: Ellipsis which can either be
interpreted as nominal ellipsis (*ajuda psiquiátrica*) or ellipsis
of the verbal group plus complement (*ter ajuda psiquiátrica*);
negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Different.

3. English: Excuse me just a minute while I go out and shoot myself.
But - *don't*.

Portuguese: a) • Com licença, apenas por um minuto, enquanto eu vou lá fora e me suicido.
Mas - *não faça* isso.

b) Com licença um minutinho, vou sair e me dar um tiro.
Mas - *não faça* isso.

c) Me dá licença um instante enquanto eu vou lá fora me dar um tiro.
Mas *não faça* isso!

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder: *do*;
negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a), b) and c) No lexical ellipsis; a different verbal group is used; negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Different.

4. English: Shall I tell you all about the latest gossip?
Yes, *do*.

Portuguese: a) Posso te contar tudo sobre a última fofoca?
Sim, *diga*.

b) Posso te contar tudo sobre a última fofoca?
Sim, claro

c) Posso te contar a última fofoca?
Sim, *conte*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder: *do*.

Portuguese: a) Different verbal group is used.

b) Ellipsis of complete verbal group.

c) No ellipsis of lexical verb.

Conclusion: Different.

5. English: Shall we talk to him now?
No, *let's not*.

Portuguese: Vamos falar com ele agora?
Não, agora *não*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder: *let's*;
negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Different.

6. English: May I see the Pope's instructions?
No, my dear son, you *may not*.

Portuguese: Será que eu posso ver as instruções do Papa?
Não, meu filho, *não pode*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator (*pode*); negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Similar.

7. English: You must tell the truth.
I know I *must*.

Portuguese: a) Você deve contar a verdade.
Eu sei que *devo*.

b) Você deve dizer a verdade.
Eu sei que *devo*.

c) Você tem que dizer a verdade.
Eu sei que *tenho*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator.

Portuguese: a), b) and c) Lexical ellipsis;
remainder: operator (a) and b) *devo*; c) *tenho*).

Conclusion: Similar.

8. English: You ought to visit your aunt.
I know I *ought to*.

Portuguese: a) Você tem que visitar sua tia.
Eu sei que *tenho*.

b) Você deveria visitar sua tia.
Eu sei que *deveria*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator.

Portuguese: a) and b) Lexical ellipsis;

remainder: operator (a) *tenho*, b) *deveria*).

Conclusion: Similar.

9. English: Need he come really?
No, he *needn't*.

Portuguese: a) Ele realmente precisa vir?
Não, ele *não precisa*.

b) Ele tem mesmo que vir?
Não, *não precisa*.

c) Ele tem mesmo que vir?
Não, *não tem*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) and c) Lexical ellipsis; remain-

der: operator (a) *precisa*, c) *ter*); negative polarity expressed.

b) Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

synonym operator (*precisa*); negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Similar.

10. English: He's to be here at six.
Is he?

Portuguese: a) É para ele estar aqui às seis.
É?

b) É prá ele estar aqui às seis.
É mesmo?

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator.

Portuguese: a) Most probably ellipsis of
non-finite clause.

b) same as a) but addition of
'mesmo'.

Conclusion: Different.

11. English: I am to be here at six.
Am I to?

Portuguese: a) Eu devo estar aqui às seis.
É mesmo?

b) É para eu estar aqui às seis.
É?

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator.

Portuguese: a) Probably clausal ellipsis,
addition of 'mesmo'.

b) Probably clausal ellipsis.

Conclusion: Different.

12. English: I haven't to do this now.
Yes, you have.

Portuguese: a) Eu não tenho que fazer isto agora.
Sim, *tem*.

b) Eu não tenho que fazer isto agora.
Tem sim.

c) Eu não tenho que fazer isto agora?
Tem, sim.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator.

Portuguese: a), b) and c) Lexical ellipsis;
remainder: operator (*tem*).

Conclusion: Similar.

13. English: He daren't go there alone.
Daren't he?

Portuguese: a) Ele não ousa ir lá sozinho.
Não?

b) Ele não ousaria ir lá sozinho.
Ousaria?

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
negative polarity expressed.

b) Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator (*ousaria*).

Conclusion: a) Different, b) similar.

14. English: I saw it.
Did you?

Portuguese: a) Eu a vi.
Viu?

b) Eu o vi.
Viu?

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator.

Portuguese: a) and b) No ellipsis of lexical
verb.

Conclusion: Different.

15. English: I thought you were still blaming your mother and me for your damned monkery. Perhaps I *should*.

Portuguese: a) Eu pensei que você ainda estivesse culpando minha mãe e a mim por sua maldita vida monástica. Talvez eu *devesse*.

b) Achei que você estava culpando minha mãe e eu pela tua maldita vida monástica. Talvez eu *devesse*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator.

Portuguese: a) and b) Lexical ellipsis;

remainder: operator (*devesse*).

Conclusion: Similar.

16. English: I'd like to come with you. Then you *shall*.

Portuguese: a) Eu gostaria de ir com você. Então *venha*.

b) Eu gostaria de vir com você. Então *venha*.

c) Eu gostaria de ir com você. Então você *vai*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator.

Portuguese: a), b) and c) No lexical verb

ellipted.

Conclusion: Different.

17. English: I'd like to come with you. Then you shall. And you, too, Basil. *Won't* you?

Portuguese: a) Eu gostaria de ir com você. Então *venha*. E você também, Basil. *Gostaria de vir?*

b) Eu gostaria de ir com você.
Então venha. E você também, Basil. Você quer?

c) Eu gostaria de ir com você.
Então você vai. E você também, Basil.
Não quer ir?

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) and c) No lexical verb
ellipted.

b) Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator (*quer*).

Conclusion: a) and c) Different, b) similar.

18. English: We've assumed that the rest of the world
would speak English for us.
Well, it *won't*.

Portuguese: a) Nós presumimos que o resto do mundo fosse
falar inglês por nossa causa.
Bem, isto *não acontece*.

b) Nós presumimos que o resto do mundo fosse
falar inglês por nossa causa.
É, mas *não fala*.

c) Nós presumimos que o resto do mundo fosse
falar inglês por nossa causa.
Bem, *não vai*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) and b) No lexical verb
ellipted.

c) Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator (*vai*).

Conclusion: a) and b) Different, c) similar.

19. English: I'll call Jim now.
"Oh, no", said another voice. "No, you *won't*."

Portuguese: a) Eu vou chamar o Jim agora.
"Ah, não", disse outra voz. "Você *não vai*,
não."
b) Eu vou chamar Jim agora.
"Ah, não", disse outra voz. "Você *não vai*,
não."
c) Vou chamar Jim agora.
"Ah, não", disse outra voz. "Você *não vai*,
não."

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a), b) and c) Lexical ellipsis;
remainder: operator (*vai*); negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Similar.

20. English: You are joking.
No, I'm *not*.

Portuguese: a) Você está brincando.
Não, *não estou* não.
b) Você está brincando.
Não, *não estou*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) and b) Lexical ellipsis;
remainder: operator (*estou*); negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Similar.

21. English: Are you going to see the game?
Yes, I *am*.

Portuguese: Você vai assistir ao jogo?
Vou, sim.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator.

Portuguese: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator (*vou*).

Conclusion: Similar.

22. English: When are you going to study?
I'm *not*.

Portuguese: Quando você vai estudar?
Eu *não vou*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator (*vou*); negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Similar.

23. English: Frank, he's going to bring up one of these
women, isn't he?
In here, *isn't* he?

Portuguese: a) Frank, ele vai trazer uma dessas mulheres,
não vai?
Para cá, *não vai*?

b) Frank, ele vai trazer uma daquelas mulhe-
res aqui para cima, *não vai*?
Aqui dentro, *não vai*?

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) and b) Lexical ellipsis;
remainder: operator (*vai*); negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Similar.

24. English: Archie's just pulling your leg,
aren't you Archie?

Portuguese: Archie só está brincando com você,
não é, Archie?

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: Most probably clausal ellipsis.

Conclusion: Different.

25. English: Are the boys looking forward to their holidays?
Yes, they *are*.

Portuguese: a) Os meninos estão esperando ansiosamente pelas férias.
Estão, sim.

b) Os meninos estão esperando ansiosamente pelas férias.
Sim, *estão*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator.

Portuguese: a) and b) Lexical ellipsis;
remainder: operator (*estão*).

Conclusion: Similar.

26. English: I don't understand it.
I really *don't*.

Portuguese: a) Eu não entendo isto.
Não entendo mesmo.

b) Eu não entendo isto.
Realmente *não entendo*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) and b) No lexical ellipsis.
negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Different.

27. English: How did you explain them to Sara?
I *didn't*.

Portuguese: Como você os explicou à Sara?
Não expliquei.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: No lexical verb ellipted;
negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Different.

28. English: Some doubt America's way to fight.
Do you?

Portuguese: a) Algumas pessoas duvidam da forma de luta
da América.
E você?

b) Alguns têm dúvidas a respeito do modo
pelo qual a América luta.
Você tem?

c) Alguns têm dúvidas sobre a maneira de
lutar da América (dos Americanos).
E você?

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator.

Portuguese: a) and c) Ellipsis of the whole
clause.

b) No lexical verb ellipted
(ellipsis of complement).

Conclusion: Different.

29. English: And didn't He deliver them out of the land of
Pharao?
Well, *didn't* He?

Portuguese: a) E por acaso Ele não os libertou da terra
do Faraó?
Então, *não os libertou*?

b) E por acaso Ele não os libertou da terra
do Faraó?
Libertou ou não libertou?

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) No lexical verb ellipted.

b) No lexical verb ellipted;

repetition of lexical verb.

Conclusion: Different.

30. English: Stay and dine with me.
I *can't*.

Portuguese: Fique e jante comigo.
Não posso.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator (*posso*); negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Similar.

31. English: Pass this to Jean. She looks as though she
can use it.
I *can*.

Portuguese: a) Passe isto para Jean. Parece que ela
pode usá-lo.
Eu *posso*.

b) Passe isto para Jean. Ela parece que
pode usá-lo.
Posso sim.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator.

Portuguese: a) and b) Lexical ellipsis;

remainder: operator (*posso*).

Conclusion: Similar.

32. English: I can hardly refuse.
Can I?

Portuguese: a) Dificilmente poderei recusar,
não é?

b) Dificilmente poderei recusar.
Posso?

c) É muito difícil recusar,
 não é?

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator.

Portuguese: a) and c) Probably clausal

ellipsis.

b) Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator (*posso*).

Conclusion: a) and c) Different, b) similar.

lar.

33. English: You could never work under those conditions.
 Right, I *couldn't*.

Portuguese: Você nunca poderia trabalhar naquelas condições.
 É, *não poderia*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator (*poderia*); negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Similar.

34. English: TV has changed.
 Cronkite *hasn't*.

Portuguese: a) A televisão mudou.
 O Cronkite *não*.

b) A TV mudou.
 Cronkite *não*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) and b) Lexical ellipsis;
remainder: negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Different.

35. English: I like listening to you.
I always *have*.

Portuguêse: a) Eu gosto de ouvi-lo.
Sempre *gostei*.

b) Gosto de ficar ouvindo você.
Sempre *gostei*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; compound tense selection.

Portuguese: a) and b) No lexical verb
ellipted; simple tense selection.

Conclusion: Different.

36. English: "What's more, you have earned yourself eternal
happiness."
"Have I?" he says. "You most certainly have",
says the Saint.

Portuguese: a) "E além do mais, você conseguiu conquistar
a eterna felicidade."
"Ganhei?" perguntou ele. "Certamente que
sim", disse o Santo.

b) "O que mais há, você conseguiu para si
felicidade eterna."
"Consegui?" ele diz. "Certamente que
sim", disse o Santo.

c) "O que é mais importante, você ganhou a
vida eterna."
"Ganhei?" perguntou ele. "Certamente que
sim", disse o Santo.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; compound tense selection.

Portuguese: a), b) and c) No lexical verb
ellipted; simple tense selection.

Conclusion: Different.

37. English: I have upset him now.
No, you *haven't*.

Portuguese: a) Eu acabei de perturbá-lo.
Não, você não o perturbou.

b) Eu o aborreci agora.
Não, não aborreceu.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator; negative polarity expressed; compound tense selection.

Portuguese: a) and b) No lexical verb
ellipted; negative polarity expressed; simple tense selection.

Conclusion: Different.

38. English: They've been shining for years.
My eyes? *Have* they?

Portuguese: a) Eles têm estado brilhando há anos.
Os meus olhos? Verdade?

b) Eles estão brilhando há anos.
Meus olhos? Verdade?

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
operator.

Portuguese: a) and b) Probably clausal
ellipsis.

Conclusion: Different.

39. English: Certainly, on the last night of Jesus' life
when He was with His disciples He embraced
them, one by one.
He loved them too much *not to*.

Portuguese: a) Certamente, na última noite da vida de
Jesus, quando Ele estava com seus discí-
pulos, Ele os abraçou, um por um.
Ele os amava demais para não fazê-lo.

b) Certamente, na última noite da vida de
Jesus, quando Ele estava com os Seus dis-
cípulos, Ele os abraçou, um a um.
Ele os amava demais para não fazê-lo.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder: *to*;
negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: No lexical ellipsis; a different
verbal group is used.

Conclusion: Different.

40. English: Come in?
But... well, yes, ...do, if you want *to*.

Portuguese: Entrar?
Mas... bem, sim, ...*entre*, se quiser.

Entrar?
Mas... Bem, sim, ...*Faça-o* se você quiser.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder: *to*.

Portuguese: a) No lexical verb omitted.

b) No lexical verb omitted; a

different verbal group is used.

Conclusion: Different.

41. English: Jesus, don't start getting emotional-
I don't expect you *to*.

Portuguese: a) Por Deus, não comece a se emocionar -
Não espero isso de você.

b) Jesus, não comece a ficar emotivo -
Eu não espero que você faça isso.

c) Por Deus, não comece a se emocionar -
Espero que você não faça isto.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder: *to*.

Portuguese: a) Ellipsis of complete verbal
group; replaced by nominal group.

b) and c) No lexical verb
ellipted; a different verbal group is used.

Conclusion: Different.

42. English: Did you have it taken off?
I'm - I'm ashamed *to*.

Portuguese: a) Alguém o tirou por você?
Eu ... eu tenho vergonha *de o tirar*.
b) Você fez com que tirassem?
Eu fiz. Eu estou com vergonha *disso*.
c) Você mandou tirar?
Eu ... eu estou com vergonha.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder *to*.

Portuguese: a) No lexical verb ellipted.

b) Ellipsis of complete verbal group; replaced by nominal group.

c) Ellipsis of complete verbal group.

Conclusion: Different.

43. English: I suppose you think I'm going to dance with you.
You are not obliged *to*, father.

Portuguese: a) Acho que você pensa que eu vou dançar com você.
Você não é obrigado, pai.
b) Eu suponho que você pensa que eu vou dançar com você.
Você não é obrigado, pai.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder: *to*.

Portuguese: a) and b) Ellipsis of complete verbal group.

Conclusion: Different.

44. English: You must have felt it surely.
You couldn't fail *to*.

Portuguese: a) Você deve ter sentido isso, certamente.
Você não poderia de deixar *de senti-lo*.

- b) Você deve ter sentido, com certeza.
 Você não poderia deixar *de senti-lo*.
- c) Você, certamente deve ter sentido.
 Você não poderia *de* deixar *de senti-lo*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder: *to*.

Portuguese: a), b) and c) No lexical verb
 ellipted.

Conclusion: Different.

45. English: Well, you recognized it, anyway.
 I *ought to*.

Portuguese: a) Bem, você o reconheceu, de qualquer forma.
 Eu *devia*.

b) Bem, de qualquer forma você o reconheceu.
 Eu *tinha que reconhece-lo*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
 operator.

Portuguese: a) Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
 operator.

b) No lexical ellipsis.

Conclusion: a) Similar, b) different.

46. English: Do you remember Brother Weinhard?
 I *ought to*.

Portuguese: a) Você se lembra do Irmão Weinhard?
 Eu *tenho que me lembrar*.

b) Você se lembra do Irmão Weinhard?
 Eu *tenho que lembrar dele*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:
 operator.

Portuguese: a) and b) No lexical verb
 ellipted.

Conclusion: Different.

47. English: God may not, in the working out of his good plan, give us what we call benefits or successes or pleasures or joys.
He *doesn't have to*.

Portuguese: a) Deus pode não nos dar, na realização de seu plano, o que nós chamamos benefícios ou sucessos ou prazeres ou alegrias.
Ele *não precisa*.

b) Deus pode não nos dar, na realização de seu plano, o que nós chamamos benefícios ou sucessos ou prazeres ou alegrias.
Ele *não é obrigado a isso*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator *have to*; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator (*precisa*); negative polarity expressed.

b) Lexical ellipsis; replaced

by nominal group.

Conclusion: a) Similar, b) different.

48. English: Anyway, he didn't really fire you.
Well, I think he *was going to*.

Portuguese: a) De qualquer modo, ele de fato não despediu você.
Bem, acho que ele *ia me despedir*.

b) Bem, de qualquer forma, ele não mandou você embora.
É, mas acho que ele *ia me mandar*.

c) De qualquer modo, ele de fato não despediu você.
Bem, eu acho, que *ele ia*.

English: Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator.

Portuguese: a) and b) Lexical verb ellipted.

c) Lexical ellipsis; remainder:

operator (*ia*).

Conclusion: a) and b) Different, c) similar.

49. English: Did you cry?
Cry?

Portuguese: a) Você chorou?
Se eu chorei?

b) Você chorou?
Chorar?

English: Operator ellipsis; remainder:

lexical verb.

Portuguese: a) No operator ellipsis.

b) No operator ellipsis; Note:

there is no tense operator in Portuguese.

Conclusion: Different.

50. English: I asked if he would give me away.
"Give you away?" he said.

Portuguese: Perguntei-lhe se ele daria minha mão em casamento.
"Dar sua mão em casamento?" disse ele.

English: Operator ellipsis; remainder:

lexical verb.

Portuguese: No operator used; remainder:

lexical verb in the infinitive.

Conclusion: Somewhat similar.

51. English: *Never heard* of her.
Nobody has.

Portuguese: a) Eu nunca *ouvi falar* dela.
Ninguém ouviu.

b) *Não a conheço*.
Ninguém a conhece.

English: Operator ellipsis in first item;

remainder: lexical verb; compound tense selection; negative polarity expressed.

Portuguese: a) and b) No lexical verb
 ellipted; simple tense selection; negative polarity expressed.

Conclusion: Different.

52. English: What is he doing?
Talking.

Portuguese: O que ele está fazendo?
Conversando.

English: Operator ellipsis; remainder:
 lexical verb.

Portuguese: Operator ellipsis; remainder:
 lexical verb.

Conclusion: Similar.

53. English: What are you going to do?
Talk.

Portuguese: a) O que você vai fazer?
Conversar.

b) O que você vai fazer?
Vou falar.

English: Operator ellipsis; remainder:
 lexical verb.

Portuguese: a) Operator ellipsis; remainder:
 lexical verb.

b) No operator ellipsis;
 complete verbal group.

Conclusion: a) Similar, b) different.

54. English: You're getting old. Your mind is going, Dad.
Getting feeble.

Portuguese: Você está ficando velho. Sua memória está
 falhando, pai.
Enfraquecendo.

English: Operator ellipsis; remainder:

lexical verb.

Portuguese: Operator ellipsis; remainder:

lexical verb.

Conclusion: Similar.

55. English: Come on love, pull yourself together. That's what we should have done years ago.
Pulled ourselves together.

Portuguese: a) Vamos, amor, recomponha-se. Isto é o que deveríamos ter feito há anos.
A gente devia se recompor.
b) Vamos, meu bem, recomponha-se. É isso o que devíamos ter feito há muitos anos.
Recompormo-nos juntos.
c) Vamos, meu bem, recomponha-se. É isso o que deveríamos ter feito há muitos anos.
Recompormo-nos.

English: Operator ellipsis; remainder:

lexical verb.

Portuguese: a) Complete verbal group used;
b) and c) Ellipsis of operator

(a) *devíamos* b) *deveríamos*).

Conclusion: a) Different, b) and c) similar.

56. English: As a matter of fact, I am going to the Opera.
Going? To the Opera?

Portuguese: a) Por falar nisto, estou indo à ópera.
Indo? À ópera?
b) Por falar nisto, estou indo à ópera.
Vai? À ópera?

English: Operator ellipsis; remainder:

lexical verb.

Portuguese: a) Operator ellipsis; remain-

der: lexical verb.

b) No operator ellipsis; other
tense selection.

Conclusion: a) Similar, b) different.

57. English: Is he running?
No, *walking*.

Portuguese: Ele está correndo?
Não, *andando*.

English: Operator ellipsis; remainder:
lexical verb.

Portuguese: Operator ellipsis; remainder:
lexical verb.

Conclusion: Similar.

58. English: He was shouting.
Yes, *shouting*.

Portuguese: a) Ele estava gritando.
É, *gritando*.

b) Ele estava gritando.
Sim, *gritando*.

English: Operator ellipsis; remainder:
lexical verb.

Portuguese: a) and b) Operator ellipsis;
remainder: lexical verb.

Conclusion: Similar.

59. English: Have you been working hard this morning?
No. Just *stacked* a few of the old chairs.
Cleaned up a bit.

Portuguese: a) Você esteve trabalhando muito esta manhã?
Não. Só *empilhei* algumas das cadeiras
velhas. *Fiz* um pouco de limpeza.

b) Você trabalhou muito esta manhã?
Não. Só *empilhei* algumas das cadeiras velhas.
Limpei um pouquinho.

English: Operator ellipsis; remainder:
lexical verb; compound tense selection.

Portuguese: a) and b) No operator ellipsis;
simple tense selection.

Conclusion: Different.

60. English: ...well, they have taken a turn against some
of the products.
Taken a turn?

Portuguese: a) ...Bem, eles estão se voltando contra
alguns dos produtos.
Voltaram-se contra?

b) ...bem, eles voltaram-se contra alguns
dos produtos.
Voltaram-se contra?

English: Operator ellipsis; remainder:
lexical verb; compound tense selection.

Portuguese: a) and b) No operator ellipsis;
simple tense selection.

Conclusion: Different.

4.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FROM THE DATA

Within lexical ellipsis similarities were found where
the English verbal group has the following modal operator:

can	(30), (31), (32)*
could	(33)
may	(6)
must	(7)
ought to	(8), (45)
need	(9)
have to	(12), (47)
dare	(13)
should	(15)
will	(15), (18), (19)

*These numbers refer to the examples above.

However, there seem to be differences where the following modal operators occur in English:

can (32)
be to (10), (11)
ought to (45), (46)
dare (13)
shall (16)
will (17), (18)
would (2)

In the case of non-modal operators, similarities were noticed with the examples of:

will (48)
be (20), (21), (22), (23), (24), (25)

On the other hand, differences could be found in the cases of:

do (14), (26), (27), (28), (29)
have (34), (35), (36), (37), (38)
be (24)
will (48)

When dealing with non-finite verbal groups (39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44), only differences were observed within the equivalents in Portuguese.

Within the third area of lexical ellipsis, i.e. that in imperative verbal groups (1, 3, 4, 5), only differences were found.

With regard to operator ellipsis, fewer examples were found in the texts examined. However, the following tentative conclusions might be made, i.e. that similarities exist where omission of the following operators occurs:

be (52), (54), (56), (57), (58)
be (plus going to) (53)
should (plus have) (55)
would (50)

And differences were observed where these operators were omitted:

have (51), (60), (59)
be (56)
be (plus going to) (53)
should (plus have) (55)

Given the limitations of the restricted corpora in English and Portuguese verbal groups under examination, it can be asserted that there are areas of similarity as well as areas of difference, when ellipted verbal groups in English are compared with acceptable Portuguese equivalents.

5 CONCLUSION

The aims of this research were three-fold: firstly, to study verbal ellipsis within Halliday's wider systemic framework of linguistic description; secondly, to list occurrences of verbal ellipsis in English; and thirdly, to identify similarities and differences between verbal ellipsis in English and their counterparts in Brazilian Portuguese.

In order to discuss verbal ellipsis, its place within Halliday's wider framework of linguistic description was first determined. Halliday believes that language is a system which consists of three levels or strata (meanings, forms and expressions) and that language is used for "innumerable social purposes"¹ represented indirectly in the language system through three main functional components (ideational, interpersonal and textual), also called macro-functions. These are reflected simultaneously in the structure of the clause. However, an essential component of the textual function is that of cohesion, which is brought about by the non-structural relations or ties such as lexical cohesion, conjunction, reference, substitution and ellipsis. Verbal ellipsis is one of the three kinds of ellipsis discussed by Halliday and Hasan, and it occurs when the structure of the verbal group does not fully express the systemic options that have been selected within the verbal group. According to Halliday and Hasan, a distinction is made

between two types of verbal ellipsis, i.e. lexical ellipsis and operator ellipsis. From the data examined it was seen that ellipsis occurs in finite as well as non-finite verbal groups, and also in imperative verbal groups.

As stated in the introduction, the practical application within this research constitutes little more than an attempt to establish similarities and points of divergence between English and Portuguese with regard to verbal ellipsis. By examining a rather limited corpus of sixty examples containing verbal ellipsis in English and their counterparts in Brazilian Portuguese, similarities as well as differences became apparent when dealing with ellipsis in finite verbal groups. However, only differences were observed, in the given examples, when dealing with non-finite and imperative verbal groups.

In this research there was a discussion of the existing patterns of verbal ellipsis in English and it was shown that there are, in fact, differences as well as similarities between verbal ellipsis in English and their Brazilian counterparts. These must be taken into consideration in the teaching of verbal ellipsis to Brazilian students. Thus it may be suggested that the areas being closer in their equivalence to Portuguese and in some way illustrating a less complex structure may be selected to be taught at the early stages of the curriculum. On the other hand, it would be advisable to delay the presentation of cases of verbal ellipsis representing differences between the two languages to a later stage in the learning/teaching process.

It is felt however, that further systematic research is necessary and that the present paper should therefore be

extended to include a contrastive analysis either within Halliday's framework or some other acceptable model of linguistic description.

NOTES

¹KRESS, G., ed. *Halliday: System and Function in Language*. London, Oxford University Press, 1976. p.19.

RESUMO

Este trabalho trata da elipse enquanto relação de coesão, segundo o modelo de descrição lingüística, sistêmica e ampla, apresentada por Halliday. A discussão da elipse verbal está baseada no livro "Cohesion in English", de M.A.K. Halliday and R. Hasan.

Após a apresentação dos conceitos de Halliday referentes à linguagem, incluindo a natureza, as funções e a estrutura da linguagem, faz-se uma discussão minuciosa de elipse verbal inglesa. Busca-se também, neste trabalho, identificar as semelhanças e diferenças entre certos casos de elipse verbal em inglês e em português. Para tanto examina-se um *corpus* restrito de exemplos de elipse verbal, com suas traduções correspondentes para o português do Brasil, e observa-se que há, na realidade, semelhanças e diferenças entre as duas línguas com respeito a este tópico. Esses fatos devem ser levados em consideração quando se queira ensinar eficazmente a elipse verbal inglesa a estudantes brasileiros.

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*This bibliography refers to books, magazines and newspapers which were used for the collection of text examples.

APPENDIX

The English verbal group¹

Tense (Finite Indicative Verbal Group)

ε	δ	γ	β	α	Tense no.	Tense: Active no.		
				past	1	1	took / did take	f
				present	2	2	takes / does take	f
				future	3	3	will take	(f-o)
			past in	past	4	4	had taken	f n
				present	5	5	has taken	f n
				future	6	6	will have taken	(f-o) n
			present in	past	7	7	was taking	f η
				present	8	8	is taking	f η
				future	9	9	will be taking	(f-o) η
			future in	past	10	10	was going to take	f(η-o)
				present	11	11	is going to take	f(η-o)
				future	12	12	will be going to take	(f-o) (η-o)
		past in	future in	past	13	13	was going to have taken	f(η-o) n
				present	14	14	is going to have taken	f(η-o) n
				future	15	15	will be going to have taken	(f-o)(η-o) n
		present in	past in	past	16	16	had been taking	f n η
				present	17	17	has been taking	f n η
				future	18	18	will have been taking	(f-o) n η
		present in	future in	past	19	19	was going to be taking	f (η-o) η
				present	20	20	is going to be taking	f (η-o) η
				future	21	21	will be going to be taking	(f-o)(η-o) η
		future in	past in	past	22	22	had been going to take	f n (η-o)
				present	23	23	has been going to take	f n (η-o)
				future	24	24	will have been going to take	(f-o) n (η-o)
	past in	future in	past in	past	25	25	had been going to have taken	f n (η-o) n
				present	26	26	has been going to have taken	f n (η-o) n
				future	27	27	will have been going to have taken	(f-o) n (η-o) n
	present in	past in	future in	past	28	28	was going to have been taking	f (η-o) n η
				present	29	29	is going to have been taking	f (η-o) n η
				future	30	30	will be going to have been taking	(f-o)(η-o) n η
	present in	future in	past in	past	31	31	had been going to be taking	f n (η-o) η
				present	32	32	has been going to be taking	f n (η-o) η
				future	33	33	will have been going to be taking	(f-o) n (η-o) η
present in	past in	future in	past in	past	34	34	had been going to have been taking	f n (η-o) n η
				present	35	35	has been going to have been taking	f n (η-o) n η
				future	36	36	will have been going to have been taking	(f-o) n (η-o) n η

Adopted from KRESS, p.153-4.

¹"The above table gives the complete list of finite indicative tense forms in active voice, beginning with the 'simple' tenses, those where only one tense selection is made, and continuing through the 'compound' tenses, those with two, three, four or five selections. For the sake of clarity, 3rd person singular forms are used throughout column α: thus *is* stands for *am/is/are*, *was* for *was/were* etc.; and *going to* is used to represent *going to* or *about to*." (KRESS, G., ed. *Halliday: System and Function in Language*. London, Oxford University Press, 1976. p.155.